# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 24, 1893.

## The Week.

THE most important feature of the committee appointments in the House is, of course, the constitution of the Ways and Means Committee, which must frame the new tariff bill. Speaker Crisp has made the wisest possible selection for the chairmanship of this Committee in Representative Wilson of West Virginia, who is a thorough student of the subject, a vigorous and able debater, and a man of the highest reputation with both parties. The restoration to this Committee of Breckinridge of Arkansas and Bynum of Indiana, who were formerly members of it, strengthens it, and it seems to be admirably framed for its work. The retirement of Holman from the chairmanship of the Appropriations Committee is a great gain to the cause of good government, his ridiculous ideas of "economy" having brought much discredit upon the theory of frugal administration, while his successor, Sayres of Texas, is, by the confession of his political opponents, a man of broad views, without any tendency to extravagance. Having disregarded precedent as to these two committees by refusing to reappoint their former chairmen, it is a great pity that Speaker Crisp did not do the same thing by deposing Mr. Bland from the head of the Coinage Committee. It is some consolation that Bland has among his Democratic colleagues such sound-money men as Tracey of New York, Rayner of Maryland, and Harter of Ohio, but a man of Harter's type ought to have been the chairman. Fortunately, the importance of this committee will be greatly diminished after the passage of the pending bill repealing the Purchase Act.

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Senator Vest's coining ratio of 20 to 1 has received a fatal blow from Secretary Carlisle, who has prepared a statement showing that it would cost $89,741,900 to give effect to it in merely recoining the standard silver dollars, and that it would cost $23,124,421 to recoin the subsidiary silver so as to make it bear the same proportion to the new silver dollar that it now bears to the existing one. These two items of cost foot up $112,866,321, which it would be necessary for Congress to appropriate. Without this recoinage, Mr. Vest's bill could not be carried into effect. We could not have two silver dollars of different weights under the principles of free coinage. We might have any number of such under the present system of limited coinage and gold redemption of silver. The metal in the present silver dollar is worth only 56 or 57 cents. That of the Vest dollar would be worth 72 or 73 cents. We might have as many varieties as there are Senators as long as the coinage is only on Government account. But if the mints be opened to unlimited coinage for private individuals, all silver dollars must be alike. Hence the gravity and seriousness of Secretary Carlisle's letter. It would require years, moreover, for the mints to do the work, and meanwhile free coinage would be in abeyance. Meanwhile we should have neither the benefits of the gold standard, nor those of free silver coinage, if there are any. Of all the devices called out by the present crisis, this "20 to 1" scheme is the most impracticable, and, when closely examined, the most ludicrous. If it had the advantage of conforming to the market ratio, that would be something in its favor, as it would afford some basis for an international agreement, but it has not even that advantage.

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Secretary Carlisle's service in the cause of sound money has been recognized on all hands as particularly effective. What he has practically done is to assume the right of a Cabinet officer to a seat and a voice on the floor of Congress. Yet in what a roundabout and handicapped manner he has had to do it, by writing letters to the Chairman of the Committee on Finance and giving out statements to the press. These have been particularly telling, it is true, and his volleyed figures have gone like grape and canister through the ranks of the silver-men; but how much more deadly execution he could have wrought, and how much more surely he could have caught and influenced public sentiment, if he could have been really, as he made himself constructively, on the floor of the Senate, driving the truth home in the give-and-take of debate. As it is, Senator Vest will probably take a few days to bind up his wounds, and will then make some sort of reply, which will have to go unanswered until Mr. Carlisle can go through the process of getting another letter published. Face to face with an opponent, and with equal right to free speech, he could not only smite the enemy through the midriff, but could twist the spear in the wound until there was an end of the business. By an instructive coincidence, on the same day that Secretary Carlisle was doing his long-range shooting in this country, the Chancellor of the Exchequer in England was at close quarters in the House of Commons with his opponents on the Government's silver policy, and was putting them *hors de combat* on the spot. He was doing directly and by warrant of custom and law what the American Secretary was doing indirectly and by a tacit and awkward overriding of custom if not of law. If we are to have the system at all, and are not to condemn our Cabinet officers to absolute silence and nullity, on all pending questions of legislation, it is only common sense to have it in its best form. Perhaps if we oftener had members of the Cabinet of Mr. Carlisle's effective debating powers, we should become ashamed of compelling them to dodge about committee-rooms and write letters in order to get their views before Congress and the country.

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Senator Vest says in his speech on the silver question:

> "It is a favorite expression now to talk of the 'silver lunacy.' Mr. President, I am willing to follow that great lunatic, Thomas Jefferson, on this question."

This shows how necessary it is for a Senator to know the history of the subject he is talking about. There are few events in our monetary history better known than the fact that Thomas Jefferson, when President of the United States, in the year 1805, gave a peremptory order to the Mint to *stop coining silver dollars*, and that this order remained in force until 1836, although Jefferson had long ceased to be President and had long been dead. The reason why he gave this order is thus stated by Mr. Upton, in his work entitled 'Money in Politics':

> "He desired that gold should circulate as well as silver, and *to prevent the expulsion of gold* he peremptorily ordered the Mint to discontinue the coinage of the silver dollar."

Whatever the motive, he certainly gave the order, and that is the reason why there is a blank in the coinage statistics of the silver dollar from 1805 to 1836.

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The bill reported by Senator Voorhees from the Finance Committee is sufficient for all purposes, and if passed will stop the panic and bring out of its hiding places the money now locked up by frightened depositors. There is a great deal of mischief done which cannot be undone, but the bill when passed—and we have little doubt of its passage—will *restore confidence*, which is the great desideratum and *sine qua non*. The clause which declares it to be the policy of the United States to continue to use both gold and silver as standard money, and to coin both gold and silver into money of equal intrinsic and exchangeable value, etc., is of no consequence one way or the other. It is what Thomas H. Benton called, on another occasion, "a stump speech in the belly of the bill." If anybody can be brought to vote for the measure by reason of the stump speech who would not otherwise do so, then, in Heaven's name, let him have it. The declaratory clause is a nearly verbatim copy of the Chicago platform. If it will help the bill along to put in the Minneapolis platform also, let that be done. The two are so nearly alike that no incongruity would result.

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The statement of the condition of the banks of New York city published on Saturday, which was awaited with so much interest, proved in several respects encouraging. The gain of $4,500,000 of reserve is satisfactory, as showing that the condition of the banks is stronger, and as demonstrating that their solvency is above suspicion. Taken by themselves, the shrinkages in the amounts of the loans and of the deposits are not cheering, but taken together some elements of hope may be extracted from them. The loans have decreased over $5,000,000, but the deposits have decreased less than $2,000,000. This may be considered to indicate that we are reaching that stage in our financial crisis when deposits increase faster than loans—the period when stagnation succeeds panic. At first the banks cannot contract their loans as their deposits contract, and a long process of pinching has to be gone through with until something like an equilibrium between deposits and loans is brought about. Then follows a period when depositors are more disposed to put their money in the banks than the banks are to lend it—a period of general business depression but of gradual recuperation. When loans begin at last to expand, we may be tolerably sure that prosperity is returning.

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The fact that the India Council in London has sold bills on Calcutta at the rate of 1s. 3¼d. per rupee, thus confessing its inability to maintain the rate of exchange at 1s. 4d., has been construed by some uninformed people as tantamount to a failure of demonetization in India. Even the London *Standard* has fallen into this error. The truth is, that this contingency was carefully considered by the financial authorities of India before they decreed the demonetization of silver. Their original programme did not contemplate the fixing of a rate of exchange between the rupee and the sovereign. Their plan was simply to stop coining silver, and then to leave the rate of exchange to find its own level. The idea of fixing a rate of exchange at 1s. 4d. came from the Herschell Commission. It was seen by competent financiers to be a blunder the moment it was announced. It is now proved to be such. But the Indian Government, in accepting the suggestion, was careful not to pledge itself to maintain the rate of exchange at any particular figure. Its members foresaw that it might be impossible, under all circumstances, to make good such a pledge. So they limited their undertaking by the following words:

> "Arrangements will be made to issue rupees from the mints in exchange for gold and sovereigns at the rate of sixteen pence per rupee *until further notice.*"

Therefore the only argument to be drawn from the sale of India Council bills at fifteen and a quarter pence per rupee is that the Herschell Commission made a mistake. That Her Majesty's Opposition should make the most of this is to be expected. Fortunately for the Gladstonians, Mr. Balfour, the leader of the Opposition in the Commons, committed a greater mistake the other day by making a speech in favor of bimetallism.

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This squall will soon blow over. It will then be seen that the demonetization of silver by India is an accomplished fact, and that the maintaining of a rate of exchange has no necessary bearing on the main question. All persons who expect the Government of India to take the back track will be disappointed. Our problem will continue to be exactly what it has been from the beginning. Our silverites will get no help from the Asiatics. They will get no help from any quarter. Their favorite metal will fall to the level required by its cost of production. And so it would do even if we had free coinage. Free coinage in India did not prevent silver from declining in value there. Free coinage in Mexico does not prevent its declining in value there. The only thing it would accomplish here would be to cheat creditors and wage-earners, including all bank depositors, savings depositors, and pensioners, and persons who have fixed incomes. After this had been accomplished we should have two kinds of money—gold and silver—the latter being at 40 or 50 per cent. discount. The *Times* seems to be the only London paper taking a calm and accurate measure of the fact that the arbitrary par of exchange cannot be maintained. It warns speculators not to risk money on any theory that the India mints are to be reopened to silver.

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The absurd attempt to make apprehension of tariff changes responsible for our business troubles was all along so devoid of support from any commercial body that when the Tacoma Chamber of Commerce was reported to have come to its support, many despairing Republican editors thanked God and took courage. It now turns out that the resolutions bewailing the "threatened overturning of the protective policy" were so laughed at and repudiated in Tacoma itself that the Chamber had to recall them. They were originally adopted on August 1. On August 5 they were reconsidered, and everything about the tariff left out, to the satisfaction of all concerned except one lonesome member, who could see nothing but tariff on every bush. This leaves the record clear again, and we can still challenge the high-tariff organs to produce the testimony of a single respectable commercial or financial organization to sustain their view.

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Secretary Carlisle has notified the North American Commercial Company, the lessees of the Pribyloff Islands, that the reduction in their rental made in 1890, 1891, and 1892 was without warrant of law, and that they are liable for the full amount. This involves a question of law which the courts will undoubtedly be called to pass upon; but as far as the equities of the case go, there will be a general agreement that the company ought to pay for the trouble and expense it has put upon the Government to maintain its monopoly. The whole controversy arose out of the wrath of the monopolizing company at the invasion of its preserves by the impudent Canadians; and whatever advantages have been won by the Paris arbitration will inure to its benefit solely. No American citizen can do any pelagic sealing in the close season, or venture within the 60-mile zone, any more than a British citizen. The whole result is to confirm and establish a monopoly of the sealing industry in the hands of this San Francisco company. That is what it has been after from the beginning, and all the tears shed over the suffering seals, and the talk about the "crime against nature" in killing the gravid females, and the pictures of the absolute despair and misery of the human race when deprived of sealskin cloaks, had their origin in the fears of an endangered monopoly. The company has kept the country in hot water for seven years, has drawn us to the verge of war, and saddled the taxpayers with heavy expense; and if now it can legally be made to foot a part of the bill, there will be no objection from man or seal.

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There seems to be some misapprehension in regard to the question of damages under the findings of the Arbitration Tribunal. The only precise award of damages which the arbitrators could make, in accordance with the treaty, was for the abstention of British subjects from sealing during the pendency of the arbitration, or for the limiting of the catch by the American Government, in case its claim of exclusive jurisdiction were sustained. This award the arbitrators must now have made to Great Britain, "for the use of her subjects," though the amount fixed upon has not been announced. The treaty only stipulated that the amount "shall be such as, under all the circumstances, is just and equitable, and shall be promptly paid." On the question of the liability of our Government on account of the seized Canadian sealers, the arbitrators were empowered to make a finding only on "any questions of fact involved in such claims"; "the question of the liability of either Government upon the facts found to be the subject of further negotiation." In other words, the Canadians will have to go to work in the usual way to prove their claims, either before our Government direct or before a mixed claims commission agreed upon for the purpose by England and the United States.

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The action of the Republican State Convention in Iowa last week assures the re-

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peal of the Prohibitory Law by the Legislature which is to be chosen in November. It is now about a dozen years since the Republicans in that State took up prohibition as an issue, and they have had enough of it. In the last two gubernatorial contests it lost them the Governorship, and in 1891 one branch of the Legislature as well. It was certain that further adherence to it would lose them the State offices again this year, and probably also the Legislature, which is to choose a United States Senator. So, although in the last contest for Governor they stood by the law and had "no apologies to offer for the Republican record" on this question, the late Convention declared that "prohibition is no test of Republicanism," relegated the subject to the Legislature, endorsed the principle of local option, and nominated an anti-prohibitionist for Governor. In any event, therefore, the election must result in the choice of a Legislature which will repeal the existing law, as the Democratic members will all be on that side. It is not so certain, however, that the Republicans will control the body. It was only by a narrow margin in a total vote of more than 1,200 that prohibition was rejected in the Convention, and a great many Republicans still believe so devoutly in prohibition that they will vote for candidates committed to its support rather than for what they consider "faithless" members of their own party.

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The figures contained in the fourth annual report of the Statistician of the Inter-State Commerce Commission show that no other region in the world of anything like an equal extent is so well supplied with railroads as is that portion of the United States which extends along the Atlantic Coast from the northern boundary of Massachusetts to the southern boundary of Maryland, and stretches westward to the Mississippi. Of course there are small and densely peopled countries like Belgium, with a land surface about one-fourth that of the State of New York, which have more miles of line in proportion to their total area, as there are thinly peopled commonwealths like the Australian colonies which exceed it in the ratio of railway mileage to inhabitants. But in extent of territory it is with the great nations of Europe, Russia excepted, that this region of the United States can be most fairly compared, covering, as it does, more than twice as much surface as either the United Kingdom or Italy, a fourth more than either France or Germany, and but a few thousand square miles less than Austria-Hungary with Bosnia and Herzegovina thrown in. If the comparison be thus made, it will be found that in proportion as well to area as to population, the eleven American States in the region mentioned lead the world in railway mileage. For every one hundred square miles of their land surface they have 17.97 miles of railway, while the United Kingdom has but 16.42, Germany 12.44, France 11.06, Italy 7.10, and Austria-Hungary 6.30. Relative to population, of course, the superiority is even greater, there being 17.09 miles of line for every 10,000 inhabitants, while in the United Kingdom there are but 5.17 miles, in France 5.91, in Germany 5.35, in Austria-Hungary 3.91, and in Italy 2.62 miles.

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The net impression derived from the Papal Ablegate's visit to this city is, that he came here for the express purpose of forcing Archbishop Corrigan to what amounts to a public recantation and profession of obedience in the future. This impression is distinctly confirmed by the authorized interview with Archbishop Satolli's private secretary, which as good as said that the object of the visit was to find out whether the Archbishop of New York was "sincere" or not in his loyalty to the Pope. We do not wonder that the friends of the Archbishop are indignant at the terms of this interview, and denounce it as inaccurate, but we observe that the private secretary and the Ablegate are at no pains to correct it. The fresh outbreak of spluttering in the *Sun* by anonymous champions of Archbishop Corrigan shows in what quarter the bolt has struck. We may expect this clanking of chains to go on for some time, but the fact remains that the Pope's representative, with the Pope's full sanction, has ridden over the reactionary extremists of the Catholic Church in this country, and is now exhibiting the chief of them tied to his chariot.

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The result of the French elections was a foregone conclusion, and it may be considered that the Republic is now established in France upon as substantial a basis as the political capacity of the French people affords. The royalist faction appears to have been nearly extinguished and the question as to the form of government definitively answered. Henceforth the problem to be solved is not whether there shall be a republic, but what kind of a republic there shall be. Upon this subject the approach of the general election naturally called forth many *brochures*, in which the political history of recent years was criticised from various points of view. We have not observed among these any serious attempts at laudation of the Chamber just dissolved, the most ventured in this direction being rather shamefaced apology, while the torrent of invective poured forth upon the members of the expiring body has been terrific. As to the earlier record of the Republic, however, the case is somewhat different. That record has been examined with especial ability and severity by M. Francis de Pressensé in an essay entitled 'La France, les partis et les élections,' which has been received with general admiration, but which has drawn forth some vigorous replies. The best of the moderate Republican journals, the *Temps*, has exerted all its abilities to diminish the force of M. de Pressensé's attack, and, it must be admitted, with some degree of success.

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Among the two thousand candidates who asked the suffrages of the French electorate on Sunday, but a very small number have gained distinction in any way except in politics, in the narrower sense of the term. This has been made a subject of remark in many quarters, but nowhere more forcibly than by M. Salomon Reinach in an article in the *République Française*. He shows how public life has a diminishing attraction for the intellectual élite of France. The few brilliant exceptions which may be pointed out only serve to make more conspicuous the low level of the great mass of office-holders and candidates for office. Most of them are entirely unknown outside of a limited local circle, and an exceedingly small number have ever gained a name in science or literature or art or education. M. Reinach concludes that "we are travelling towards a state of things such as exists in the United States—the formation of a narrow caste of politicians, side by side with the increasing withdrawal from public life of men who think and make others think." Precisely this result was predicted by Burke a hundred years ago, when he spoke of the "multitudes of the inferior sort" which would be drawn into public life as "the objects of ambition are multiplied and become democratic." The democratic movement, in fact, has brought with it a deterioration of personnel in the official class all over the world. It has brought it in England as well as in France,—so much so as to point the remark lately made by John Morley, in answer to an objection urged against the character of the men likely to be found in the proposed Irish Parliament, that if legislation were to wait until a thoroughly nice Legislature could be got together, the wheels of government would be blocked in every democratic country on earth.

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A minor feature of the recent German elections has been the increase in the Danish vote in Schleswig. While as hitherto but one Danish member was returned, his majority was considerably greater, and the minority votes of the other Danish candidates were without exception increased. In spite of the determined efforts of thirty years, the Germans are no further advanced in their plan of Germanizing this conquered Danish territory than when they began. Danish is still spoken in the homes, Danish papers are still read, and Denmark is still regarded as the people's real fatherland. Nor are the Danes at home more reconciled to the loss of "Southern Jutland." In every possible way they seek to support the cause of their former countrymen and to express their warm sympathy for them.

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### GOLD AND CREDIT.

It is very obvious that most of those who may be called "practical bimetallists"—the owners of silver mines and the politicians controlled by them—are really in favor of monometallism. They demand the free coinage of silver, and they are unable to clothe the assertion that the gold standard could still be maintained with a rag of argument. But it is undeniable that a considerable number of honest people are convinced of the theoretical advantages of bimetallism. Like Mr. Arthur Balfour, they sincerely dread the adoption of gold monometallism. It seems to them to involve the diminution of the "reservoir" of precious metals, and to threaten a serious, and, to debtors, an oppressive decline in prices. So far as we have observed, however, these theoretical bimetallists do not pay sufficient attention to the fact that it is a "condition and not a theory that confronts us." They fix their minds upon a real or supposed fall of general prices that has taken place during the last twenty years, and upon an imagined or anticipated fall that is to take place in the future, and ignore the frightful depreciation of the present moment. That depreciation we attribute to the apprehension not of gold monometallism, but of silver monometallism. However this may be, it shows that there are causes in operation which the bimetallic theorists do not take into account.

These causes arise out of the credit system of doing business, a system which has been carried in this country to an extreme never before witnessed. Until recently it might almost be said that money in the strict sense had gone out of use in the United States. A man would carry on an extensive business for months without touching a gold coin. A silver dollar he would reject, and the only semblance of metallic money that he used was the token coinage, which after all passed upon its credit more than upon its intrinsic worth. There was some gold held by the banks in their reserves and a good deal was held in the reserve of the Government. The only object of holding it was to assure the holders of paper money that they could get gold for it if they wanted to do so. If the holders of this paper were entirely satisfied that the Government had the ability and the will to redeem it in gold, we do not hesitate to say that the banks might keep their reserves in legal-tender notes instead of gold, and the Government might get along safely with a reserve of a hundred millions of gold. It might be formulated as a law that the amount of gold required for the transaction of the business of this country varies inversely with the credit of the Government. If that credit is above suspicion, the amount of gold needed is infinitesimal; but if the credit of the Government is shaken, it ceases to be available as money to the same extent, and more gold is required.

To simplify the matter, we may throw out at once the factor of positive ability to pay. No one doubts that the United States is abundantly able to pay all its obligations without difficulty. But since the silver legislation has prevailed, it is undeniable that doubts have arisen as to the honesty of the purpose of our Government. The political platforms have in many cases not been reassuring. A great many Representatives and Senators have loudly proclaimed that existing debts ought to be made payable in silver, and have voted for free coinage in order to make their intention effective. Rightly or wrongly, those who had lent gold dollars or their equivalent regarded this intention as dishonest. They perhaps had no clear views about monetary theories, but as between gold and the paper promises of a government of suspected honesty they had a practical preference for gold. Hence the contraction of credit; hence the strenuous demand for currency to take the place of the credit that had disappeared; and hence the reappearance of gold as money.

What now would be the effect of a clear, emphatic, and sincere declaration by a substantial majority of Congress that every creditor of the United States should be paid in gold, and that no more silver would be bought or coined? According to the bimetallic theorists, this ought to produce a fall in prices. They think that there would be a greatly increased demand for gold, a struggle among nations for it; that its value would be so enhanced that prices would fall, and the "debtor class" would be ground between the upper and the nether millstone. The facts show that nothing of the kind would take place. There would be a rise and not a fall of prices. There would be a lessened and not an increased demand for gold. There would be no struggle of nations over the matter, for, in the first place, the struggle is not between nations but between individuals, and in the second place gold would be rather at a discount than at its present premium. The "debtor class" would find that its credit was improving, business men would be able to get their notes discounted, timid people would release their hoards, and, in short, by restoring credit to its function as money, the requirement for actual money would come to an end.

To sum up, our existing currency is composed of gold and credit. If there is less credit, there must needs be more gold. If there is more credit, there need not be so much gold. If the bimetallists are logical, they will recognize the fact that credit is a much more important factor in currency than silver, and that their endeavors to force silver upon a reluctant business community depress prices instead of raising them. If we are to have bimetallism, we shall have to give up a large part of our credit. It may be wrong and deplorable, but it is the fact, and sensible bimetallists ought not to ignore it. We think the correctly reasoned convictions of the "financial classes" are against them, but, granting that it is only their unreasonable prejudice, the practical question remains the same. Shall we regard these prejudices and continue to do business on a little gold and a great deal of credit, or shall we defy them, and try to do business on a great deal of silver and what gold and credit the financial classes are disposed to contribute? This is the question that the American people is now asking its representatives in Congress.

### THE REAL AMERICAN RULER.

"In no country in the world," says Mr. Bryce in his 'American Commonwealth,' "is public opinion so powerful as in the United States. . . . Towering over Presidents and State Governors, over Congress and State Legislatures, over conventions and the vast machinery of party, public opinion stands out, in the United States, as the great source of power, the master of servants who tremble before it. . . . In America opinion is not made, but grows; . . . does not originate in a particular class, but grows up in the nation at large." We commend these utterances, by the most penetrating and friendly student who has ever analyzed American institutions and character, to all persons who have doubts about the action of the Senate on the proposed repeal of the Silver-Purchase Law. We commend them also to the interested advocates of silver who are seeking to create the impression that there is at present a majority against repeal in the Senate.

To any one who has followed closely the history of this country, there are visible in the situation at Washington the very conditions which have usually preceded a great triumph of public opinion and a disastrous defeat for selfish, personal, and private interests. It has happened almost invariably that we emerge from our most momentous crises by a very narrow margin of safety. It is well known that when President Grant vetoed the Inflation Bill of 1874, he was at first inclined to approve it, and had prepared a message to that effect, but that he tore it up and wrote a second one which rescued the country from the abyss of illimitable paper money. Public opinion saved us in that crisis, as it saved us again from the free-silver-coinage peril in 1890. When the Free-Coinage Bill passed the Senate in that year, there was a general expectation that it would pass the House as well, but it was turned back because of popular protest against it. That protest was a very feeble voice compared with the one which is heard now, for the people have been going through a course of compulsory education on the silver question during the past few months which has taught them more about it than they would have learned in a lifetime under ordinary conditions.

Again and again partisan zeal in Congress has brought the country to the verge

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of pernicious and dangerous legislation, like the successive force bills and the Blair Educational Bill, only to be turned back at the last moment by the influence of aroused public opinion upon a few of the more conscientious and high-minded members. In the Legislature of New York a few years ago a bill was passed, with arrogant defiance of public opinion, authorizing the disfigurement and spoliation of Central Park. Its advocates had more votes than they needed, and they scoffed at the idea of yielding to "popular clamor." But, within a few days, these same advocates, grinding their teeth in rage, bowed before public opinion and repealed their own measure. They were not converted; they were merely frightened into submission to the only power of which they stand in awe.

The career of President Cleveland is crowded with instances of this power of public opinion to overcome all obstacles, and they are so familiar to everybody that it is not necessary to recall them. How often has it seemed to the political prophets that his public career had been brought to an end because the politicians and statesmen of his party were arrayed in almost solid mass against him. He triumphed over them in every instance because he had public opinion behind him, and they found themselves, when that opinion asserted itself, as powerless as the most insignificant citizens in the land. They could not defeat him in their political conventions, and they were unable to prevent his triumph at the polls.

We are confident that the present contest will result, like all others of the kind, in the triumph of public opinion. The influences which are at work in the Senate to prevent it are the same as have worked against Mr. Cleveland in previous conflicts. How familiar it sounds, for example, to read in the Washington despatches that "in the opinion of many it rests with Senator Gorman to determine the action of the Senate on the question of the repeal of the Silver-Purchase Act." We heard a good deal of talk of that kind at the opening of the National Democratic Convention last year, but the event showed that Mr. Gorman had very little power in the premises. It sounds equally familiar to read in the same despatches that Senator Hill would be glad to aid Mr. Gorman in defeating repeal in the Senate, hoping thereby to show the President that he cannot carry out any policy without the aid of that wing of his party which Hill, Gorman, and Brice represent. But this wing has endeavored to make precisely the same demonstration many times before, and, for various reasons, has not succeeded. What would be the position of the Democratic party in New York and every other Northern State were these anti-Cleveland Democratic Senators to defeat the repeal bill? Every man of them knows that it would be a question only of the size of the Republican majorities after that. They might like to see President Cleveland's policy fail, but they are not anxious to commit political suicide in order to cause its failure. The trouble is that Cleveland's policy is the people's policy, and the two cannot be separated. Cleveland would not be injured by the failure of the Senate to pass the repeal bill, but the Democratic party would be blown so far out of existence by that failure that it would have no voice in directing the government of this country for another quarter of a century, and would deserve to have none. This is why, after all the bluster and bribery that the silver advocates can bring to bear on the situation, the Senate will unite with the House in voting for repeal.

## *BUSINESS AT THE WEST.*

THE passing of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company into the hands of a receiver calls attention to the marked decline in railway earnings and in general business in the States west of the Missouri River. The so-called transcontinental lines report a larger falling-off in traffic than is shown by companies east of Chicago. The losses reported by the Union Pacific for June will be exceeded, it is said, in the July statement. Temporarily at least, the traffic in the States named has on all roads shown a falling away from last year's statistics. Merchants in that section are alive to this fact, for in several instances we are informed that pools in goods have been agreed upon. In these pools the shopkeepers of a town or small city agree not to order goods from the East till the total stock of the town is exhausted. In this way a trader who is out of nails or calicoes will apply to a neighboring storekeeper for those articles with which to supply his customers. The agreement resembles the clearing-house system under which the banks with a surplus reserve assist their weaker brethren for the time. The effect of such agreements is of course for the moment to reduce still further the amount of railway shipments; yet it brings the end in sight, after which, under improved conditions, a more than normal movement of merchandise will set in.

The peculiar situation regarding the movement of the crops also affects the territory in question. Even allowing for the unusual surplus of wheat carried over, we shall be short perhaps 150,000,000 bushels as compared with last year; yet the cash price of grain does not reflect the statistical position. Farmers who have informed themselves will try to arrange their sales so as not to sacrifice their wheat. In ordinary times no planning would be needed, for speculators would borrow from the banks, and, by bidding against each other, would raise the price of cash wheat at harvest to an equivalent of the expected price during the anticipated scarcity of the winter. But the fear of the silver standard has blocked the machinery of exchange. The latest plan for overcoming the difficulty is by the issue of certified checks. This is much better than no plan, for in some way, though at heavy sacrifice, the crops must be moved. Yet it is well to remark regarding the bank-check plan that only the capitalists who have money in bank will be able to avail themselves of it, whereas formerly other brokers, greatly outnumbering the capitalists, could, by borrowing from the banks, aid the farmer in getting the highest cash price for his grain. In short, with the most favorable makeshifts for moving the crops, the producers all over the country, by supporting, or not opposing, the Sherman Act, have given themselves over to the "bloated capitalist," and have deprived themselves of the assistance of those who may believe in higher prices for breadstuffs, but who cannot obtain the credit assistance which in other years was theirs for the asking.

This state of things will no doubt prevent an early movement of the crops from the field to Minneapolis or Chicago—the very shipments upon which the Western roads usually count. This delay is and will be a factor in the shrinkage in earnings which the trans-Chicago lines are now showing or may hereafter report. Well-informed persons declare that farmers are financially able to hold their wheat. After two years of fine crops at good prices the Western producer is in a much better condition than his neighbor the manufacturer. It is said that the money in Iowa savings banks is largely that of farmers; and the general farming situation is the same in other States. The grain-producer may be expected, therefore, to ship his product much more slowly than in previous years, with a corresponding effect upon railways of a smaller traffic now and a better one in grain in the future.

It is not a cause of wonder that the younger States should feel the business depression acutely. Their growth has been phenomenal, but their citizens have forgotten that their prosperity was dependent upon credit. Faith in the profitableness of their mines and fields was the ground of the Eastern or foreign investment of capital, without which such development would have been impossible. The prosperity of the West was owing entirely to the expansion of our system of credit financiering. No doubt Eastern goods were sold there on too long time, and in general the credit system may have been carried too far, but nevertheless the confidence of both lender and borrower was found to be generally justified. As a single instance the railway first mentioned, the Northern Pacific, may be taken. For the year ending June 30, 1887, its gross earnings were upwards of $12,000,000. For the year 1891 those earnings exceeded $25,000,000, a doubling of receipts within four years. Regardless of the basis of their prosperity, the Western States allowed the whole system of credits to be attacked until general distrust ensued. It is a rule in commercial affairs that new enterprises are the first to be affected in a panic;

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so we need not be surprised that general business there felt the effects first and heaviest. The situation at the West points a clear moral: that for their own interests and to hasten a return to their former abounding prosperity, the newer States should take prompt steps to restore public confidence in the standard of value.

## THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION—IV.

### THE ENSEMBLE.

CHICAGO, July, 1893.

AN article in the *Revue Bleue* last winter contained an account of the buildings of the Chicago Fair as they then appeared. The writer was strongly impressed by the general effect of what is now called the Court of Honor and the design of the buildings surrounding it. His admiration, indeed, amounted to an enthusiasm. There was a trace of proper French surprise that a combination so artistic should have been made at that distance from Paris, but he remembered that much was still to be done. The architects had succeeded in grouping their masses harmoniously, and the buildings were in themselves imposing. He was sure, however, that much of the fine effect then obtained would be lost when each edifice should be disfigured by the coarse and tasteless decoration sure to be lavished upon it. One smiled at the flavor of cockneyism that is rarely absent from the Parisian judgment, but, just the same, one shared the critic's distrust as to those "finishing touches." Favorable testimony came from all sides and from competent witnesses, and yet our incredulity was never entirely dissipated. We owned to ourselves that an equal weight of testimony would have secured unclouded belief had the Fair been in Paris, but, as it was in Chicago, an attitude of reserve was no more than natural.

Our first view from within the grounds was when, from the terminal station of the Illinois Central Railway at the Fair, we passed through the Administration Building to the terrace from which is seen the whole Court of Honor. We remarked by the way that the Administration Building was much more imposing in reality than in the pictures of it we had seen. The colonnade under the dome especially was more stately and had more relief than they had led us to expect. Nor had we looked for anything so majestic in size. As to the interior decorations, seen in crossing under the dome, they were on a higher level both as to conception and execution than the Parisian critic had foreseen. But what would he have said on coming out into the Court of Honor, now that an abundant scheme of decoration supplements the dignity of the masses in general? What *could* he have said, except that he might have trusted those capable of conceiving such a whole to look well after its component parts? As far as we know, there exist no two opinions as to this stupendous spectacle. In detail, as in mass and grouping, it compels admiration from every one, and the scale upon which it is carried out puts it in the very front rank of similar displays. As a complete departure from the conventional exhibition architecture—the endless variations made upon the original Crystal Palace and that of the Champs-Élysées—it is not quite unprecedented. At Amsterdam a few years ago the great feature of the International Fair was the show of products from Java, and the architect of the main building thought fit to give a façade made up from Javanese motives. The result was a great success, though, as far as we know, it did not attract the attention it deserved. It was thoroughly exotic. Amidst the sober quaintness of Amsterdam, its snowy mass was like a palace in a dream, and yet it was quite appropriate to the exhibition it prefaced. It was more original than the setting at Chicago; we had almost said it was more appropriate, but we remembered that if Javanese architecture fits a Javanese show, so does Roman architecture, and its successor of the Renaissance, fit a display of the products and industries of the civilized world. In respect of the choice of an architectural setting for the Fair, it is a great good fortune that the Gothic style, proposed and favored by one, at least, of the architects concerned, was not fixed upon eventually. This we say not less as admirers of mediæval art than as friends of what is meet and suitable.

It might be said that Chicago is not even the second to break away from the conventional world's-fair style, since some of the buildings of the last great show in Paris were architectural feats of a high order. In originality of conception, in bold "modernity," Chicago can show nothing to compete with the combination of the Eiffel Tower and the dome of the Machinery Hall, unless it be an originality to turn back so completely to types consecrated by age. However that may be, Amsterdam could boast of but one palace, unsupported by any group in harmony with it; and, whatever be the relative value of the works of the French and the American artists, in themselves considered, nobody can deny that Chicago has, in the ensemble of the Court of Honor, accomplished something unique and splendid, probably beyond all feats of decorative architecture of our time.

There are two points of view from which we especially loved to gaze at this fine scenic display. From the terrace in front of the Administration Building the eye looks straight down the long basin of water between the Agricultural Hall and that of Manufactures and Liberal Arts to the peristyle with the gilded statue of the Republic in front and the blue of the lake seen between the columns. The sheet of water is vast, the main lines of the surrounding buildings are simple, the general effect is indescribably majestic, though, at the same time, made gay by the gondolas and launches that enliven the basin, and the perhaps too manifold flapping of flags on the roof edges. It is from here that the Manufactures Building is seen to advantage. It is the huge roof, with its really noble lines, which gives it character and goes far to redeem the commonplace, railway-station look it has when one sees it from near at hand. It is splendid in mass, but poor in detail, apart from the decorative paintings, some of which are beautiful, but which do not count in any general view of the hall.

The second point is on the north-side bridge looking across the basin toward the south canal, where the end of the Machinery Building confronts that of Agriculture, and the two are connected, in the background, by a colonnade of exceedingly elegant design. This view is much smaller than the first, and, instead of the breadth and simplicity of that, we have a charming richness, picturesqueness, and grace. The two main buildings are perhaps the most successful compositions of their class at the Fair. The "Palace of Mechanic Arts" is a delightfully rococo combination of belfries and domes with colonnades and porticoes, grouped by a master hand. The Agricultural Hall, which, in the form of its dome and various other features, invites comparison with the Art Building, is in some respects better than that, and inferior to it only in disposition and subordination of masses. It is especially superior in force, variety, and originality of design. This group is enriched by a bridge, by rostral columns, an obelisk and statues, forming altogether a composition as unrestrainedly splendid as the dream of a theatrical decorator—one of the things that seem "too good to be true." It is so bright and exuberant that it strikes one as foreign to the practical American genius, and, we fancy, elicits less general admiration than many less clever but more sober combinations. And yet its festal character is in nowise exaggerated; there are salient points enough to give animation, gayety even, to the scene, but not enough to be confusing.

And just here we would touch upon what, to us, is a defect in the great beauty of this court. Let any one look at the charming MacMonnies fountain from one side, and at a little distance, and he will see what we mean. In a line with one part or another of the fountain —itself rich in figures—are two Corinthian columns with an eagle atop of each, two rostral columns, four stags, all white and all seen against a white background. The effect is bewildering. The multiplicity of forms, all in the same color, makes it difficult to see any one of them in proper relief, and all together make an inextricable confusion. Neither of the peoples whose architecture has suggested all the features of this court would have made such a mistake. Gold and bronze and color would have been employed, not in quantities sufficient to take away the general whiteness of tone, but so that each member of the group would have stood out in needed relief. The delicate tint on the walls of the Agricultural Building adds much to the value of the colonnade in front of it; and, though we frequently heard regret expressed that Mr. French's statue of the Republic had not been left in its original whiteness, the objectors failed to consider that, at the proper distance for seeing it, the statue would then have been scarcely discernible.

Again, it seems ungrateful to quarrel with the abundance of a feast, but six rostral columns exactly alike, and each bearing at the top the same Neptune, give a machine-like character to the decorations, all the more noticeable as the standard of excellence in them is so high. So there are at least six of those stags and four buffaloes; and the fine farm horses and oxen which embellish the landings on the great basin, are repeated on those of the south canal, etc., etc. Of course the temporary nature of the entire spectacle is the excuse for these inartistic economies in profusion. It is, however, due to the administration to add that our surprise is less that such repetitions should have been indulged in than that they should be so few as to be easily lost sight of in the variety, the richness, and, above all, the high level of the work in general. Were the often-expressed wish to be realized, and these buildings made permanent in marble, it would not be necessary to add all the decorative surroundings at once, but then it would be imperative that each one should be unique.

This wish, that the beauty of the Court of Honor might be perpetuated, is the natural expression of the admiration it excites. It is also the protest of the imagination against the ugliness of our cities, their general sacrifice of the aspirations of the educated minority to the supposed wants of the majority; and it is delight in a generous offering to our inner desire for a lovelier setting to our lives. The Chicago people are naturally proud of the splendid work

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they have called into existence, and the comparison they invite with the last Exhibition in Paris is excusable. In one way this comparison may be made more wholesome than pleasant, and that is in thinking, as is inevitable, of the surroundings of each. The Paris Exhibition was a jewel in an equally wonderful setting. It was not out of place in, but was worthy of, what is still the most beautiful city in the world. There was no transition from one to the other—one was only the complement of the other. At Chicago you go out of the Fair grounds into a hideous suburb, whence a train whirls you away to a grimy, workaday city. Whatever harmony there may be between Chicago and its superb creation is an inner and moral one. We willingly believe, however, that this harmony is real, and is an earnest of what the Chicago of the future is to be.

Quitting the Court of Honor, one leaves what is peculiar to the Chicago Exhibition—its glory, its *clou*—for a fair like another; a very big one, it is true, but still a fair such as we have seen only too often. The waterways are here also, and serve to enliven the general commonplace. The north end of the lagoon, surrounded with its "samples" of architecture, is a picturesque enough higgledy-piggledy. It is a pity, however, that the south end of the Wooded Island could not have been a formal arrangement of landscape gardening, in harmony with the architectural group about it, consisting of the Manufactures, Electricity, Mining, and Transportation Buildings. No doubt the accomplished artist who laid out the island saw clearly enough how much this part of the basin would have gained by such treatment. That he did not act upon his knowledge is a sufficient proof that the difficulties in the way were not to be overcome.

The Transportation Building is a revelation as to what the Fair has escaped by adopting Renaissance architecture and prevailing whiteness. Close at hand the building is an entertaining salad of styles. The so-called "Golden Doorway" is a successful enough fusion of Romanesque, Arabic, and East Indian motives. The arcades of the sides are Roman in plan with columns of original form. In the spandrils are very modern Byzantine angels, reminding one of Sarah Bernhardt as *Theodora*—altogether, a pleasant building to pass the time with; but seen at a distance, all these details fail of effect, and the epithet "shabby" applied to it by the London *Times* seems justified.

We are now in the region of conventional exhibition architecture, where there is much that is good with some that is bad. Next to the Transportation Building, or nearly so, is the horticultural display. The housing of this is naturally in the variety of greenhouse which has become the exhibition style. But it has been treated well in the spirit of much modern French work. The dome, from any point of view, is pleasing, and the whole merits more praise than it has got thus far, unlike the Art Building, which has got rather more than it merits. Not that this last is not deserving of praise, and of high praise, but scarcely of such as we have heard given it. At least, in its present state, its classicality is suggestive of the cold Munich sort; and parts, as, for instance, the attic and pediment over the main entrance, are distinctly poor. Its dome, too, of beautiful form, would be improved by more vigor in its details. The pediments about it look thin, the decoration about the drum too delicate for a place so far from the eye of the observer. The sister dome on the Agricultural Building is more fortunate in these respects. By the way, the circle of turkeycocks that does duty for the conventional Greek honeysuckle as a crest to the drum, is at once original, appropriate, and pleasing. A similarly happy inspiration made the architect of the Fisheries Building use fishes and aquatic plants and animals for the ornamented mouldings, the capitals and shafts of his columns, many of which are full of spirit and grace. By a mistake of the workmen, who copied the ornamentation on the columns only so far as it was shown in the drawings furnished them, the lower part of the shafts is quite plain. We cannot help thinking the blunder a happy one, as by it a certain expression of freshness, of a first impulse, that marks the work is increased.

Among the State buildings there are two sorts that are especially interesting: those which attempted nothing but a pleasing display of the most rustic forms of construction and decoration—these at least show something of the products of the States and the ideas of their people—and those which reproduce, by copy or suggestion, some historical monument. The others are merely more or less successful architectural compositions without any peculiar appropriateness. Of the foreign buildings, the German is the most important. It is a very characteristic example of the style which the Germans call their Renaissance, very effective in its way and picturesque—but as for their Renaissance, "Bless thee, Bottom! bless thee! thou art translated!" Had they called it *Wiedergeburt*, it would have been all right. Such as it was, however, it had a beauty and a character of its own; which is more than can be said for their structure in the Liberal Arts Building—as commonplace a copy of Italian motives as could well be produced. It naturally provokes comparison with the French pavilion near it, a florid composition, such as the occasion and place warrant, and vigorous, well adapted to its purpose, and thoroughly artistic.

In one respect the impression of beauty generally received from the Fair inspires uneasiness. It is not unreasonable to fear lest the Court of Honor mark the beginning of an outbreak of white classicality over the land, which will make the vagaries of Queen Anne and the colonial style appear the height of good sense and good taste. Roman architecture less than that of the Georgian era lends itself to performances in pine boards and white paint. But we may hope that the Fair will bear good fruit as well as bad, and that its final lesson will be one of reserve and refinement. If American builders once learn that simplicity and good proportion, with ornament remarkable rather for quality than for quantity, are worth more as factors of permanent success in architecture than all the picturesque jumbles of towers, loggias, oriels, dormers, etc., etc., that they now delight in, the Fair will have accomplished a work of lasting value.

S. K.

## THE POPE AND THE AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

ROME, July 27, 1893.

IT is not surprising that the position of the Vatican in relation to the schools in America should puzzle those who are not initiated in the first degrees of the Roman mysteries. To the last degrees no one is initiated except those who can be relied on never to take exception to what is decided there, and never, above all, to reveal it. There is no authoritative declaration of truth as received at the Vatican, except the encyclicals, bulls, rescripts, etc., etc.; and in spite of what is currently believed, the Vatican has no official organ. Information is furnished to certain papers which are held never to publish anything contrary to the views of the Vatican, but which are never admitted to be official further than direct communications are concerned. The matters on which there is no declaration of dogma, or Papal decision (which is not reckoned as dogma, but as no longer subject to dispute), are, like the laws of nature, subject to different interpretation, but, like those laws, more or less authoritatively interpreted; and as Nature has her law-readers, so the matters thus left outside of the decisions of the Church are read with authority which approaches the Papal, more or less.

On all the questions thus left in limbo, the Rev. Father Brandi, famous Jesuit controversialist, is recognized as the highest authority, and he is always put forward to reply to the attacks on the doctrine of the Church, and has the fullest access to the documents and persons giving light on the respective subjects. He is the authoritative interpreter, to whom all outside the circle of the highest illumination, such as Bishops, Archbishops, Monsignore of the various degrees below Cardinal, give respectful adhesion. He was put forward to reply to the articles in the *Contemporary Review*, and has now published, in the *Civita Cattolica*, organ of the order, his dictum on the school question in the United States, headed "A New Pontifical Confirmation of the Parochial Schools in America." It is followed by the text of the Pope's letter to Cardinal Gibbons "on the controversy about the public and parochial schools of the United States," which the Rev. Father says "has been received with grateful mind and applause by all who were and are, here [in Rome] or elsewhere, strenuous defenders of an education strictly Catholic for the Catholic youth in Catholic schools. Nor could it be otherwise, it being known to all that on such an education depends in great part the true and genuine well-being not only of individuals, but also of the family, the State, and the Church."

I will endeavor to give as clear an idea of the article which the Rev. Father has published as the original permits, and where there is a passage in the original which seems subject to any question, I will render it literally, and in the rest will give such a résumé as will not "betray" the author. For him I have all the respect one can have for a man who consistently and with his whole soul sustains the most uncompromising adherence to the rigid doctrine of the Church as it is defined by the Papal bulls and rescripts, defiant of all the temporizing and compromising weaknesses which maintain the nominal boundaries of the Catholic Roman Church at the cost of its discipline and compactness. Father Brandi has no patience with the Catholics who question—he recognizes nothing but the most implicit acceptance of the authority of the Church, and will have none of the modern liberalization of it. Therefore he says:

"Our readers are not ignorant how the bitter struggle for the existence of the Catholic school, and the principles on which it is founded, has been in the United States, especially during the last two years, sustained not only against the attacks of the secret societies, which there not less than in Europe, animated by a Satanic fury, do everything to pervert the education of the youth, but also and chiefly against certain laicizing Catholics, who, under the pretence of patriotism, reach-

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ing a friendly hand to the enemies of the Church, seem to desire to subordinate in the school the religious good to the civil good, and fully approve, against the decrees of the Popes and the prescriptions of the Plenary Council of Baltimore, such a method of educating the youth as should be divided from the Catholic faith and from the authority of the Church."

That there exists in the United States such a party among the Catholics he considers a grave and painful fact, and he stigmatizes the *Western Watchman* as a sacrilegious assailant of the true doctrines of the Church, associating with it the *Colorado Catholic* of Denver, the *Catholic Union and Times* of Buffalo, the *Northwestern Chronicle* of St. Paul, the *Freeman's Journal* of New York, and the *Catholic Times* of Philadelphia. To put a stop to the propaganda of the pernicious principles of these pseudo-Catholics, the Father undertakes to comment on the letter of the Pope to which reference has been made; and the readers of the *Nation* may take my assurance, as of one in the most friendly and (as far as is possible to a non-Catholic) confidential relations with some of the most liberal and clear-headed prelates in residence here, that what Father Brandi says is what the Vatican means, and what must be accepted by all who desire to remain in the grace of the Church. The letter, he shows, must be accepted as the sole and indiscussable rule by which all Catholics must be guided on the question involved, being, not the teaching, either theoretical or practical, of a prelate or private teacher, but the decision of the head of the Church, intended to put an end to the dissensions and disputes which have existed on the subject of the schools. These are the authoritative words of the Pontiff:

"For the rest, in order that there may remain in the future no reason for doubt or clash of opinions in a matter of so great gravity, as We have already declared in our letter addressed on the 23d of May of the past year to the venerable brethren, the Archbishop and Bishops of the Ecclesiastical Province of New York, so again, as far as is necessary, We declare that the decrees established according to the rules given by the Holy See through the Councils of Baltimore, in regard to the parochial schools, as well as all that the Roman Pontiffs, either directly or through the Sacred Congregations, have prescribed on the same subject, are to be constantly observed."

Follows a résumé of the history of the Councils of Baltimore, and quotations from their decrees, insisting on the retention in the hands of the clergy of the education of the Catholic youth. "We exhort the Bishops," says the first Council, "and, in view of the grave evils which habitually proceed from a not well-instructed youth, we conjure them by God's bowels of mercy, to endeavor to found in their respective dioceses schools annexed to each church." This was confirmed by the second Council, which further urged that not only the religious, but the literary, education of the Catholic youth should be conducted by the clergy. The third Council, affirming what had been said by the prior ones, adds that "each parochial church should have, in the space of two years from the promulgation of the present decree, its own school where it does not already exist, and keep it up perpetually, unless for serious reasons the Bishop considers that a delay may be accorded." And further, it adds that a priest who neglects to obey this rule deserves to be sent away from his parish. To these decrees of the Councils, Brandi adds a digest of the allocutions and letters of Pius IX. and Leo XIII. confirming this rigid view of the question, concluding with an extract from the Encyclical *Sapientiæ christianæ*, and one from the letter of the past year to the Archbishop and Bishops of New York.

"Here the Holy Father declares that his decision, like that of the whole episcopacy, 'denies the possibility of approving the neutral schools—*i. e.*, those without religion—and asserts the necessity of confessional schools in which the youth shall be instructed in religion by those whom the Bishops shall have judged fit for that office.' After this last solemn declaration of the Holy Father in favor of the parochial schools and the decrees of the Councils of Baltimore, illustrated by the documents to which he refers and which we have desired to quote at length, we believe that, according to the expressed desire of the Pontiff himself, all controversy on this subject ought to cease. In another of our works published apropos of the decree of the Holy Congregation of the Propaganda, we concluded with the words of St. Augustine, 'Jam de hac causa duo Consilia missa sunt ad Sedem Apostolicam: inde etiam rescripta venerunt. Causa finita est.' We now add the remainder of the sentence, which we then omitted: 'Utinam aliquando finiatur error.'"

Father Brandi is right, and those who live in Rome and are daily witnesses of the struggle going on between the Church and its opponents are perfectly aware that there is no compromise possible and no "liberalizing" of the Roman Catholic Church, in the way that so many non-Catholics and lukewarm Catholics are desirous of seeing it liberalized. The very foundation of the organization is the principle of authority of the Holy See, and Father Brandi sees, as the Pope sees, that any weakening of this authority is simply the beginning of a schism. Private judgment no longer exists on any matter on which the Church has spoken, and it must be remembered that it is not merely the opinion of the person who holds the papacy in hand, but the deliberations of the highest authorities of the Church, as expressed in its conclaves and councils, of which he is the mouthpiece. We who maintain as the vital element of human progress the absolute liberty of human intelligence and the inherent wisdom of doubt, consider as a theological fiction the authority of the papacy and the dogmas of the Church, under whatever form; but, if the Church is to stand, it must stand by authority, and every member who doubts and claims liberty of judgment is an illogical Catholic and an enemy to the Church, and it is far better for it that he should be excised from it than that he should air his liberalism in it; that the Church should be diminished in numbers rather than weakened by want of cohesion and homogeneity. This is the feeling of the great body of the churchmen who live near the head of the Church, and it is the logical conclusion of Roman Catholic doctrine. X.

## NAPOLEON, AND NO END.

PARIS, August 3, 1893.

WHAT may be called the Napoleonic revival continues, and I can offer as a proof the great success obtained by two works of M. Henry Houssaye, '1814' and '1815.' M. Henry Houssaye is the son of Arsène Houssaye, well known in the literary circles of Paris, who was for a few years Administrator of the French Theatre at the end of the Second Empire. M. Henry Houssaye devoted himself in his youth to the study of Greek; he speaks modern Greek; he wrote a 'History of Alcibiades and of the Athenian Republic from the Death of Pericles to the Period of the Thirty Tyrants,' and several other works on the Hellenic world.

Finding, probably, that Hellenism has retained but few adepts in our day, he turned himself to modern times; he wrote a short account of the campaign of France in 1870, and afterwards betook himself to the study of the downfall of Napoleon. He worked in the modern fashion, trying to forget all that had been written on the subject, and searching for original documents in the rich archives of our Foreign Office and the unexplored archives of our War Department. He says in a note to his last volume that 200,000 letters and reports came under his eyes. According to the modern historical fashion, he never advances a fact without mentioning in a small-print note the document or documents relative to this fact. The method has been justly criticised, not in itself, for the historian cannot consult too many documents, but in its excesses, when the historian merely counts the documents without criticising and weighing them. An innumerable mass of small strokes do not make a picture; the historian need not take us into the recesses of his library and the recesses of his own mind. The great public is satisfied if it is interested, and the interest suffers somewhat by perpetual annotations and references.

It must be confessed, however, that M. Henry Houssaye has used his documents artfully, and has thrown as much as he could into notes which the general public may read or not; and he has not overburdened himself in his narrative. In fact, I confess having read his '1815' as rapidly as I could have read the most thrilling novel. Yet is it not fiction, this extraordinary and miraculous "vol de l'aigle" of Napoleon from the island of Elba to the Tuileries? There is nothing in the history of the world more romantic, nothing which has so much the character of an epopee. The return from Elba assumed the character of a legend almost immediately after having marked its date in history. It is eminently dramatic. It has painted itself in the popular imagination in a succession of tableaus such as remain for ever engraved on the mind.

First we have the departure from Elba, the small flotilla carrying "Cæsar and his fortune"; Napoleon on the deck of the *Inconstant*, watching the English and French cruisers, with his battalion of Elba, composed chiefly of old grenadiers.

"Towards four o'clock, the *Inconstant* had rounded Cape Corse, when a war-ship was signalled, coming right on her. The Emperor gave the order to clear for action. 'Let her approach,' said he, 'and if she attacks us, we will board her.' After a few moments Taillade [the captain] recognized the brig *Zéphyr*, which he had often met in this part of the Mediterranean, and which was commanded by one of his old comrades, Capt. Andrieux. The Emperor, who wished to avoid a fight, ordered the grenadiers to take off their high bear-skins and to lie on the deck. The two brigs passed each other. Accustomed to see in these waters the flag of Elba, Capt. Andrieux showed no hostile disposition. By the Emperor's order Taillade took the speaking-trumpet and hailed the commander of the *Zéphyr*. 'Where are you going?' asked Taillade, repeating the words of Napoleon. 'To Leghorn; and you?' 'To Genoa. Have you any commissions?' 'No. And how is the great man?' 'Very well.' And the two ships left each other."

Second tableau: The ships of the little flotilla had met in the deserted Golfe-Jouan. Napoleon had taken his column, composed of about a thousand men, directly to the mountains, thus avoiding the royalist region of Provence, and striking for Dauphiny. The details of his march are most interesting, but let us come at once to the critical point, to his first meeting with troops sent against him. This took place in a narrow passage, on the road to Grenoble, at Laffrey. Commander Delessart had been sent to dispute the passage of Laffrey with a bat-

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talion of the line and a company of engineers. He had with him Capt. Randon, an aide-de-camp of Gen. Marchand, who commanded at Grenoble. "The Commander recognized Napoleon by his gray redingote and saw him dismount. The Emperor seemed very much agitated. He walked on the road, then stopped and looked at the battalion with his glass." There was a moment of uncertainty, of anxiety: would the soldiers sent against Napoleon fire on him, his soldiers of the Old Guard, his Polish lancers? The captain of artillery, Raoul, aide-de-camp of Napoleon, first rode alone towards the front of the battalion, and said: "The Emperor is going to march on you. If you fire, he will be the first struck. You will answer for it before France." Mute and motionless like statues, the soldiers seemed insensible. The Polish lancers rode on, and Delessart, seeing his men hesitating, ordered the retreat; he was almost immediately ashamed of retreating, and, the lancers having had the order not to charge and returned towards Napoleon, Delessart stopped and turned the head of his battalion again towards Napoleon.

"Then the Emperor ordered Col. Mallet to have all his men keep their guns under their left arm. Mallet having objected that it would be dangerous to come thus disarmed before a troop whose disposition seemed uncertain, the Emperor said: 'Mallet, do as I say.' And, alone, before his old chasseurs, bearing their guns low, he marched towards the Fifth of the line. 'There he is. Fire!' screamed Capt. Randon, beside himself."

The unfortunate soldiers were livid, their legs shook, their guns trembled in their hands. When he was within pistol-shot, Napoleon stopped.

"'Soldiers of the Fifth,' said he with a strong and calm voice, 'know me again.' Then, advancing two or three steps more and opening his redingote, 'If there is among you a man who wants to kill his Emperor, he can do it. I offer myself to him.' The trial was too great for soldiers. A long cry of 'Vive l'Empereur!' so long repressed, burst forth. The ranks were broken; the white cockades covered the road. The soldiers threw themselves towards their Emperor, surrounded him, knelt before him, and touched, like idolaters, his boots, his sword, his redingote."

Third tableau: Napoleon has gone on, he has entered Grenoble, he has entered Lyons; as he said on landing, the eagle has fled from spire to spire to Paris. The soldiers join him wherever he goes; the peasants follow his ever-increasing army and look with amazement on him. Marshal Ney, who had forced him almost brutally to abdicate at Fontainebleau, the year before, who had left Louis XVIII., saying that he would bring back Napoleon in an iron cage, has gone over again to the captain with whom he had fought so many battles. Let us see the end of the triumphal march. Napoleon is approaching Paris; Louis XVIII. has fled. All who composed the Imperial Court have gone, one by one, to the Tuileries—councillors of state, chamberlains, masters of ceremonies, all in their uniforms, generals, ladies in court dress, with all their diamonds, as on a great gala day. They meet each other, like ghosts, in the Salon des Maréchaux. Somebody perceives that on the carpets the fleurs-de-lis have been put over the imperial bees. The ladies go on their knees with scissors, and the bees are seen again. Time goes on; they are all waiting; the night approaches; the Emperor does not come; perhaps a fanatical royalist has fired at him.

"At last, towards nine o'clock, a distant noise is heard of horses and cries all along the quays. It comes nearer, it becomes formidable. A post-carriage enters rapidly, followed by a thousand horsemen of all arms and of all grades, riding in disorder, brandishing their swords and vociferating 'Vive l'Empereur!' . . . The door of the carriage is opened, Napoleon seized, torn from it, carried from arm to arm to the vestibule, where other arms drag him to the steps of the staircase. All these men are attacked by a furious delirium. . . . 'In God's name,' screams Caulaincourt to La Valette, 'put yourself in front of him!' La Valette braces himself against the avalanche and walks backwards, preceding the Emperor, saying all the time, 'Is it you, you, you?' Napoleon seems to hear nothing, to see nothing. He allows himself to be carried on, with a fixed smile on his lips, as if in a state of somnambulism."

M. Houssaye does not content himself with these pictures; he has an object—he intends to prove that the return from Elba was not a mere military triumph; that Napoleon was not only the idol of the army, that he was as much the idol of the people. But, on his own showing, there were distinctions to be made both in the various provinces of France and among the various classes of the people. Napoleon, after landing at Golfe-Jouan, never dared to cross the royalist parts of Provence, where he had been so ill-received and almost ill-treated when he made his journey from Fontainebleau to the Island of Elba; he traversed the Revolutionary province of Dauphiny, and afterwards that part of the eastern provinces of France which was most chauvinistic. It is true that all resistance in the Gironde, in Brittany, in the southern part of France which was hostile to his enterprise, came to an end when he was once again in the Tuileries; the Duc d'Angoulême, the Duchess, the leaders of the Vendean party, could make only spasmodic efforts against Napoleon. Nevertheless, the middle classes were everywhere alarmed at the consequences of the return of Napoleon. Though Napoleon, urged by his friends to recommence 1793, and to become the true successor of the men of the Terror, said, "I will not be the king of the canaille," he felt himself that he had with him only the army and what M. Houssaye calls the *populaire*—that is to say, the mob. He called Carnot into his Cabinet, he appealed to the interests of those who had bought the *biens nationaux*—the estates confiscated during the Revolution; but he counted really on the army, on his own genius, on the fortune of war. The second volume of '1815,' which has not yet appeared, will show us the end of the terrible drama.

# Correspondence.

## A SUBSTITUTE FOR THE SHERMAN ACT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The people of this country have for some time been supplying Senator Jones "and ten thousand gentlemen more" with food, clothing, shelter, and a few luxuries, in return for mining and smelting silver, transporting it to Washington, and coining, counting, and guarding it. The people now show some signs of a disposition to quit this business by repealing the Sherman Act; and their employees, naturally indignant, insist on a substitute. Nothing will answer the purpose but the following: "Be it enacted, That all the silver now in the Treasury be carried back to the West, reconverted into ore, and deposited again in the mines!" The malcontents would be employed; the value of silver would be enhanced; the dreadful calamity of using that precious gold as money would be averted, and Republicans and Democrats would be free to resume their discussion of the academical question: *What function of the duty on one thing is the price of another?* Incidentally, too, the depraved desire of the millions who want to own silver tea-sets would be thwarted. Do we not know, on the authority of an eminent writer on international law, that a cheap tea-caddy makes a cheap man? As for the silver certificates, they might, I presume, remain "based" on the silver, of which "there would be as much in the country as ever there was."

A. I.

New Bedford, Mass.

## PURCHASING POWER OF THE RUPEE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The London *Economist* of June 30, 1888, as quoted by Mr. Wells in 'Recent Economic Changes,' has something to the same point as your editorial, "Another Silver Humbug Exploded":

"The argument has been that, owing to the fall in silver, the gold which the seller of Indian wheat here gets for his produce is worth 25 per cent. more rupees than before, and that, as the rupee commands in India the same amount of wheat it formerly did, the fall in silver is practically equivalent to a bounty of 25 per cent. upon shipments hither. But if the purchasing power of the rupee, instead of remaining unchanged, has fallen 25 per cent., as the official record of prices would seem to show, then obviously the argument and the theories that have been based upon it fall to the ground."

I have been told by one who buys Indian products that the price of indigo goes up on the decline of silver, and it is a common argument that the United States people lose millions to silver-standard countries. If silver goes down and the silver price of indigo rises, I do not see why the gold price should go up, too. Can you tell me where this argument is best made and where best refuted?—Yours truly,

Arthur M. Hyde.

Rockville, Conn., August 17, 1893.

[If you mean the "common argument that the United States people lose millions to silver-standard countries," we have never seen any argument on that subject, but merely the private opinion of certain persons that such losses take place. We do not know where or by whom the announcement of this opinion has been "best made." The best refutation of it that we are acquainted with is that of Sir David M. Barbour, the financial adviser of the Indian Government. Sir David, although a strong bimetallist, advised the demonetization of silver by India on account of the losses that India sustained by reason of the silver standard. His paper on this subject was laid before Parliament and published recently in conjunction with the other documents relating to the action of India on silver.—Ed. Nation.]

## THE RELIGIOUS PARLIAMENT AT CHICAGO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The most important and far-reaching benefits to mankind from the Columbian Exposition are not those which are most palpable to the ordinary visitor, but those which are hereafter to result from the series of congresses held at the Art Institute in conjunction with

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the Exposition. It is only the comparatively small number of the most intellectual class of visitors who appreciate their value while in actual progress, but they are destined to exert a widespread influence when laid open to the world by publication, and they cannot fail to develop further thought and stimulate further investigation. We have already had abundant evidence of this in the papers and discussions of leading minds of the world which have been secured by the wise forethought of the projectors of this feature of the Exhibition. The reports of them in the daily papers have sufficed only to show how rich a treat is in store for those who may hereafter be able to study them with thoughtful care; and doubtless there are many in every community who will derive more enjoyment from their perusal than was afforded by the gorgeous material display in the various buildings and on the grounds.

But of all the assemblies to be convened during the Fair, none can equal in interest, or in the opportunity it will afford for social progress, as a stepping-stone towards universal brotherhood, the Religious Parliament which is to be held at the Art Institute from September 11 to September 27. Its conception was a sublime one, and the manner in which the call has been responded to from every quarter of the globe affords sufficient evidence that the times are ripe for the effort.

The grand underlying spirit which prompted it may be expressed in the words: "Have we not all one Father? Hath not one God created us?" And in this spirit the leaders of spiritual thought of every nation and sect on earth have been asked to come together, and explain the doctrines which they hold to be most favorable to such spiritual development as will be acceptable to the common Father. No such assembly has ever been seen on earth as will then be gathered in Chicago. Leading representatives of every existing faith will be present in person or contribute papers, animated by the wish to ascertain wherein they agree, rather than to magnify differences; recognizing the weakness of human nature, and trying to help each other by drawing nearer together and seeking for good wherever it is to be found, in accordance with the words of Whittier:

> "So to the calmly gathered thought
> The innermost of truth is taught,
> The mystery, dimly understood,
> That love of God is love of good;
> That to be saved is only this—
> Salvation from our selfishness."

It is a significant and very suggestive fact that the two most decided and uncompromising opponents of the Religious Parliament are the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Sultan of Turkey! Neither of these magnates will admit a discussion which involves the necessity of recognizing any faith but their own, or that spiritual progress is possible on any but the conventional lines prescribed by the churches of which they are the heads. Comment is needless, and perhaps it is a just cause for congratulation that such a conspicuous example has been furnished to illustrate the effect of bigotry in defeating its own object. Fortunately, neither of them can control the leading minds of their followers, and noble representatives of both beliefs will take part in the discussions.

H. W. S. C.

Minneapolis, August 7, 1893.

## MR. ALCOTT AND HIS BIOGRAPHERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Are you quite sure that, as you say, "it is a serious reproach to the *candor and accuracy* of the Memoir [Mr. Alcott's] that the name of Joseph Cook does not appear in the index"? What is there in that particular name which accuses Dr. Harris or myself as inaccurate or uncandid if we omitted it, either in the index or the Memoir? Might we not, by possibility, have forgotten it, or have failed to see that it had any more claim to be inserted than a hundred other names in the Boston Directory?

But you then proceed to tell your readers that, without this name and some events that you say are connected therewith, Mr. Sanborn's description of Mr. Alcott's Western journey in 1880–1881 "conveys a wholly false impression." And this, it further appears, is because Mr. Alcott's success in that journey (as you say) "was largely explained by the fact that he now had *the evangelical endorsement behind him*, given with all the more ardor because the Trinitarians claimed him. As the friend of Emerson, he had returned from a tour of Western lecturing with a single dollar in his pocket; as the friend and supposed convert of Joseph Cook, then at the height of his popularity, he brought back a thousand dollars." Now, you either mean to assert that such an explanation was in fact given (though neither myself nor Dr. Harris may have heard of it), or else that the fact, as you state it, was true, whether mentioned by anybody or not. In either case, we have here a question of fact.

May I then ask you to give me the evidence on which you base either of these assertions? Although I was intimate with Mr. Alcott at the time of this journey, and long afterwards—far more intimate, I am sure, with him and his circle than you can have been—and although I should have had no objection whatever to stating your alleged fact, had it been within my knowledge, I must say that I hear of it now for the first time, and do not believe it. Perhaps you can convince me; but mere assertion will not, for I have reason to know that the fact itself was very far from your explanation. Both Mr. Alcott and several of his hearers and reporters on that journey (he was reported in print many times, and I have seen these reports) informed me that the apparent cause of his success (apart from his own eloquence, such as it was) was the universal desire to see the father of the 'Little Women,' and to hear something concerning the circle to which the Alcott family belonged. It was never even suggested, at that time, that his brief and slight acquaintance with Mr. Cook had anything to do with a matter which was quite sufficiently explained by what I have mentioned. Nor do I suppose that either of Mr. Alcott's biographers thought of Mr. Cook as so connected with the substantial facts of the remarkable career they had to describe that he came into their minds at all, except as an illustration of that generous courtesy which it would be too much to expect from all critics—but not, I hope, from those of the *Nation*.

F. B. Sanborn.

Concord, Mass., August 11, 1893.

[The evidence on which our opinion was based, upon the point at issue, was that of personal observation as to the demeanor and expressed opinions of Mr. Alcott at some of the repeated *séances* held for him at the rooms of Joseph Cook in Boston during at least one winter; and the corresponding change of tone among the evangelical clergy of that region. Mr. Alcott himself was wont to exult over the increased readiness of clergymen, during his later Western trips, to receive him into their pulpits and houses; and it is idle to deny that this must have made a great difference in the expenses and profits of his lecture tours. It is to be noticed that the explanation now given of his increased success—the popularity of his daughter's writings—is one which, however probable, is not mentioned in the biography. To call his acquaintance with Mr. Cook "brief and slight" simply shows that his main biographer did not follow him up so eagerly, during that important digression of his later years, as at other more satisfactory periods; and it was precisely this omission that we regretted. The vagaries and inconsistencies of a prominent man are by no means the least instructive parts of his career. Dr. Harris sets, in our opinion, a good example to Mr. Sanborn when he admits, during the last twenty years of Mr. Alcott's life, "a growing compromise with things as they are"; and this certainly took, at Mr. Cook's rooms, a form very painful and disappointing to the few of Mr. Alcott's earlier friends who were present. —Ed. Nation.]

## MADISON'S JOURNAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your note on Madison's Journal of the Constitutional Convention in No. 1467 of the *Nation*, you do not distinguish between 'The Madison Papers' and Madison's 'Journal of the Constitutional Convention.' The latter is only part of the former, the Journal occupying 939 pages in the original edition, instead of 1,624, as you state. The index is not "cut to suit the editor's caprice," but adapted to this edition, as is clearly stated on the title-page. If the writer of your review will take the pains to make comparison, he will find that every reference in the original edition to matter in the Journal is retained.

The book is exactly what it claims to be, a reprint of the Journal of the Constitutional Convention, invaluable to every student of American history, and not accessible in any other single-volume edition.

Yours respectfully, E. H. Scott.

Chicago, August 19, 1893.

[We must apologize for our too hasty comparison, though we cannot think that the separation above described should be dignified by the name of "editing."—Ed. Nation.]

## EARLY USE OF THE TITLE "UNIVERSITY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, J. G. R., in the issue of August 17, asks for an "American instance of an earlier use of the title 'University' than that of 1779 in Pennsylvania." Harvard was first legally styled "University" in the clauses relating to the College in the Constitution of 1780—those clauses having been reported by a committee of the Convention in October, 1779. President Edward Everett, in a paper submitted with his Report

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for the academic year 1847-1848, after remarking on this fact, goes on to say:

"But the name, with the supposed exclusive prerogative of a university, that of conferring honorary degrees, had been claimed for the College at a much earlier period. President Increase Mather, in his public address at commencement, in 1692, after his return from England, with other remarks pertinent to the point, says: 'The General Court of Massachusetts, the Governor, Council, and people of New England have named and established Harvard College as a University (academia), with authority to confer degrees, in the manner of the English Universities.' In the title-page to the 'Magnalia,' published in 1702, the fourth book is said to be 'An Account of the University of Cambridge in New England.'"

Various early diplomas are also cited by President Everett to sustain his point that the College had been frequently regarded and spoken of as a university during the colonial period.

Increase and Cotton Mather were both learned men, and ought to have had a conception of a university too large to be filled by the struggling college at Cambridge which they knew. Perhaps the growth of that College into a real university should enable us to entertain hopes concerning the various "universities" throughout some parts of the country to-day, whose diminutive faculties not only lay claim to the title, but vigorously exercise "the supposed exclusive prerogative" of institutions which bear it—the prerogative of conferring honorary degrees.

Very respectfully, WILLIAM G. BROWN.

GORE HALL, CAMBRIDGE, August 19, 1893.

## A HARVARD PARALLEL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of Edward Everett Hale's 'A New England Boyhood,' you quote from the book the following sentences descriptive of a Harvard Class Day in 1830-1838:

"Then, on the afternoon of Class Day, . . . all the College assembled, and every other male loafer who chose to come where there was a free treat. Pails of punch, made from every spirit known to Cambridge innkeepers, were there for everybody to drink. It was a horrid orgy from end to end. . . ."

Change in the above the words "Class Day" to Commencement Day, and you have a barely exaggerated description of the day which marks the beginning and end of the present Harvard college year. Immediately after the exercises in Sanders Theatre, there is a general adjournment to the class reunions, at each one of which there is a strong rum punch, a claret punch, with little or no provision for men desirous of less stimulating refreshments or for men of temperance principles. The graduating class, being the guest of every other, is quick to become disorderly, and the younger graduates, as well as many older, are sure to overstep all bounds. A '61 man—a regular attendant—assures me that last Commencement was the worst he has ever seen; an '88 man is equally positive that he can find at his class reunion only the men eager for a "free treat," the better element going to the clubs to seek friends. Nor are some of these clubs one whit better (last year a man was thrown from the first-story window of one of them by a drunken crew). The whole is to-day a "horrid orgy," inexcusable in 1838, still less so in 1893, and calls for immediate action on the part of the proper authorities and the better class of graduates. Viewed in any moral light, it is a gross wrong, a constant temptation, a source of corruption, and a disgrace to an enlightened University. And what a fearful example to set undergraduates and the boys on hand to take their entrance examinations.

Very truly yours, A.B., 1893.

NEW YORK, August 18, 1893.

# Notes.

DODD, MEAD & CO. announce 'Some Old Puritan Love Letters,' of John Winthrop and his wife Margaret, edited by the Rev. Joseph Twichell; a translation of Maxime de la Rocheterie's 'Life of Marie Antoinette'; 'Irish Idylls,' by Jane Barlow; and 'The American Girl at College,' a comparative account of institutions.

Henry Holt & Co. have in preparation 'The History of Mankind,' in four volumes, by John S. Hittell, and nearly ready the 'History of Modern Philosophy,' from the German of Richard Falckenberg, and a 'Minimum French Grammar and Reader,' by Prof. Edward S. Joynes.

Ginn & Co. will publish next month 'A Field-Book for Civil Engineers,' by Prof. Daniel Carhart.

'Jamaica at Chicago' is one of the numerous official publications intended to reinforce the exhibits of foreign States. It is an unpretentious narrative, partly descriptive, partly historical, and a little repetitious, illustrated with a variety of landscape views which one regrets to find disconnected from the text. The writer, Lieut.-Col. the Hon. C. J. Ward, Honorary Commissioner for Jamaica, manifests a humane feeling towards the black population, whose character and progressiveness he vindicates against their traducers. He saves his general picture of prosperity and tranquillity since complete emancipation in 1838 by a mere allusion to the "disturbances of 1865," with which the name of Gov. Eyre is indelibly associated. There is a special chapter on Columbus in Jamaica and a large map of the island. The Boston Fruit Co., we read on page 24, has by its business enterprise "saved the two most easterly parishes . . . from reverting, sugar being extinct, to the condition of primeval forest."

Under what is plainly a pseudonym, Zéphyrin Raganasse, the writer of 'Fabrique de Piono' (Paris: Savine), attacks vigorously and mercilessly the educational system of France, especially that portion of it which is comprised in the École Normale. That there are defects in all educational systems, whether French, English, or American, or even German, no one denies. That the French system is as utterly bad as Zéphyrin would have us believe, is hard to credit, especially in view of the many brilliant *normaliens* at present occupying distinguished positions in art, letters, science, and politics.

M. Hippolyte Parigot has given us, in his 'Le Théâtre d'Hier' (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.), a series of instructive studies on the dramatists of the nineteenth century. He had already proved his ability to handle such a subject in the valuable analysis of Émile Augier's life and work which he wrote for the collection of "Classiques Populaires." In the present volume he reviews the work done by Augier, Dumas *fils*, Pailleron, Labiche, Meilhac and Halévy, Sardou, and Becque. A general idea of his conclusions may be formed from a perusal of the introduction to the book, in which introduction, by the way, a large place is given to Scribe, in whose behalf M. Parigot also takes up the cudgels. This revival of Scribe is becoming more marked every day, and it is plain that the strong reaction which swept him into the limbo of contempt has nearly spent itself. The main interest of M. Parigot's book, however, lies in the very careful study of each master's work and in the judgment, moderate, usually, in tone, which he has passed upon each author, as well as on the whole drama of the present time.

M. Léopold Mabilleau's 'Victor Hugo' is a valuable addition to the works written about the poet. It contains very little biography, just what is needed to make one grasp intelligently the analysis that follows. That analysis is of the genius of Hugo, of his gifts of vision, imagination, and expression. It is admirably conducted, profoundly interesting, and not to be missed by any one who desires to estimate the great French poet at his real worth. Not the least pleasant feature of the work is the absence of fulsome laudation on the one hand and of mean vilification on the other. The writer manifests an impartial spirit, and gives ample evidence of having simply sought to ascertain and tell the truth.

*L'Année Littéraire*, edited by Paul Ginisty (Paris: Charpentier), has reached its eighth year, and the volume now issued has a preface written by Ibsen. It is disappointing, however, for the great dramatist confines himself to a relation of how he wrote and published "Catilina," a remodelled edition of which was brought out recently.

A list of almanacs in the Boston Public Library is a feature of the July Bulletin of that institution. For the historically minded there are five facsimiles of Revolutionary broadsides issued in 1773 by the Boston Committee of Correspondence, of which Sam Adams was the moving spirit.

At one stroke the Cornell University Library has been endowed by Prof. Willard Fiske with a Dante collection which almost any library might envy, consisting of upwards of 1,800 volumes and pamphlets. A fair copy of the first edition of the 'Divine Comedy' (Foligno, 1472) is among them. It contains a great number of inedited annotations by Luca Pulci. Other quattrocento editions are the first Venetian (1477), that by the printer Scoto da Monza (1484), the Brescian issue of 1487, two more Venetian of 1491, and that of 1497. The first edition of the 'Convito' (Florence, 1490) is also in the collection, which includes nearly all the translations into modern languages and perfect sets of Dante periodicals. The pictorial illustrations are remarkably complete. The collection has been very rapidly got together.

The distribution of parts in the great scheme of the Chicago Fair is authoritatively set forth in Mr. Burnham's address before the World's Congress of Architects in that city. The address may be read in the *American Architect* of August 12.

The account of his journeys in French Indo-China by the Hon. G. N. Curzon, M.P., in the *Geographical Journal* for August, is very timely in view of the events of the past few weeks. In describing the geographical characteristics of this region, the writer refers to the rapid growth of the river deltas which constitute the bulk of the French possessions. Hanoi, the capital of Tonkin, now sixty miles from the sea, was upon it in the seventh century, and Hongyen, a maritime trading port only two hundred years ago, is now thirty-five miles in the interior. In these deltas, traffic is carried on wholly by river boats. The main route through the peninsula to Saigon is by the Mandarin's Road, on which one may travel by pony, palanquin, or chair. In Annam is a very ancient

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system of Government postal stations or *trams*, an Annamite word, to which a body of carriers is attached. A slight reference is made to the disputed sovereignty of the Mekong valley, Mr. Curzon asserting that the "French influence can hardly, except in a few places, be said to extend beyond the main crest of the range" which runs close to the sea through Annam. Capt. J. W. Pringle contributes an account of the Government railway survey to Victoria Nyanza, with a map. Incidentally he mentions the depressed condition of the once-dreaded Masai, occasioned by the cattle plague, which has destroyed their herds and reduced them to a starving condition, and suggests that the time may have come to make practical use of their "discipline and soldier-like qualities." In an article on the ancient trade route across Ethiopia, Mr. J. T. Bent describes some interesting ruins in Abyssinia. He found the inhabitants of the "Regio Troglodytica" of classic times still making the mountain caves their granaries and refuges for themselves and their cattle when threatened by marauders.

A sunshine map of the British Isles, in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for August, is especially interesting as being the first attempt of the kind. It is constructed from observations taken at various stations during the past ten years, and exhibits the mean annual sunshine by graded colors. Apparently the south coast of England is the most favored part of the United Kingdom in this respect; Falmouth, near Land's End, having 1,700 out of 4,400 hours of "possible sunshine." Jersey exceeds this by about 100 hours, and is the only station "recording in any month, on the mean of the ten years, an average of even one-half of its possible duration of sunshine." The least amount, 1,200 hours, is to be found in the mountain regions and the northwest coast of Ireland. Perhaps the most striking feature in the distribution of sunshine, writes Mr. H. N. Dickson in the article accompanying the map, is that "the greatest percentage of sunshine is attained in districts where the annual range of temperature is least." There is also in the magazine an interesting account of Col. Yate's mission for the demarcation of a part of the Russo-Afghan frontier. He reports a very decided increase of prosperity in parts of the Amir's dominions, particularly in the country about Herat, which is "marvellously improved since 1886, much more populated and flourishing."

Prof. A. H. Sayce argues in the *Asiatic Quarterly Review* for July against the commonly accepted view that the Mt. Sinai of the Old Testament times was situated in the so-called Sinaitic peninsula. The origin of this belief, he holds, can be traced to the Christian anchorites of the second century. The Red Sea of the book of Exodus he identifies with the Gulf of Akaba, and is inclined to look for Sinai "on the borders of Midian and Edom, among the ranges of Mount Seir, and in the neighborhood of the ancient sanctuary of Kadesh-barnea, whose site at 'Ain Qadis has been rediscovered in our own day."

We are requested to say that an index to Thayer's 'Cases on Evidence' has been printed, which will be sent free to all purchasers of the first edition of the book on application to the publisher, Charles W. Sever, Cambridge, Mass., through the dealer of whom the book was originally obtained.

—The fourth and last volume of Prof. Johnston's "Correspondence and Public Papers of John Jay" (Putnam's) once more suggests the inquiry why the compilation was begun. It cannot be said that the editor has been just to either Jay or his subscribers, for he has added nothing to what was known of Jay, and he has not sought to give his readers so much as an outline of the events in Jay's life that called out his state papers. It is remarkable, too, how many points in Jay's career were subjects of violent controversy, that could be made exceedingly interesting. This volume begins with his mission to England, where he negotiated the famous treaty always associated with his name, and closes with extracts from his will. As negotiator of a treaty which gave rise to a controversy that enlisted the ablest writers, that brought forward constitutional questions of grave import, that embarrassed the Administration and strained its relations to the Legislature, and that led to results which have clouded the diplomatic relations between England and America to this day, Jay was surely a subject fit for a historian, much more for a specialist. Why has not the editor given us even a glimpse of this treaty and its relations to the times? Why has he omitted Jay's letters to Monroe, Monroe's caustic and officious comments; Jay's letters to Hamilton, and Randolph's and Jay's correspondence? We are compelled to repeat that this edition of Jay is more remarkable for what it does not contain than for what it reprints. While it proves the respectability of the man, the confidence he inspired in others, and his even balance of thought, these qualities were already known. What was wanted was some light on certain points in his career of political and historical interest—his labors as a member of the Continental Congress; his attitude in the negotiations of 1783; his weakness with Gardoqui, and his surrender of all points in the Treaty of 1794. In passing we must note the omission of Mrs. Jay's letters as printed in *Boogher*, which are worth more than dozens of letters from nonentities, on formally uninteresting topics, that have found a place in Prof. Johnston's work. The proof-reading, again, is carelessly done. Why *John* Hartley (p. 153), when the letter must refer to David Hartley's 'Argument on the French Revolution'? We note Tanken*v*ille for Tanker*v*ille (p. 174), and a probable error in date of the Committee letter (p. 286). The gentleman referred to in the letter of Washington (p. 197) was William Pickman. Hamilton drafted the instructions to Jay (p. 10). Of special interest are Peter Jay's account of a political meeting (p. 238), and Schuyler's opinion of Jefferson (p. 273).

—To the already numerous writings on bimetallism by the famous German publicist and parliamentarian, Ludwig Bamberger, must now be added an interesting monograph entitled 'The Catchwords of the Silverites' ('Die Stichworte der Silberleute'; Berlin: Rosenbaum & Hart). Herr Bamberger looks at the problem, it is true, chiefly from the German standpoint, but his exposition of the sophistry of the bimetallists is none the less valuable to foreigners. In Germany the chief advocates of free silver consist of the large Prussian landowners, who persist in ascribing the agrarian depression to the "accursed gold standard." Herr Bamberger shows that monometallism cannot affect one industry to the exclusion of others, since the problem is one of general prices, and he then disproves in detail the alleged injury to German agriculture through Russian and Indian competition as a result of the monetary situation. Incidentally he shows up the essential selfishness and hypocrisy of the German silver agitators. With the other catchwords—the insufficiency of the gold supply, the fall in prices, and the sufferings of the debtor class—Herr Bamberger makes equally short work. In a striking passage in the discussion of the last point he shows how erroneous it is to suppose that the debtor is necessarily or even generally the poor man. A final part of the work is devoted to the project of international bimetallism. Here again Herr Bamberger shows how politically impossible and economically unwise such an arrangement would be. The Brussels Conference is handled without gloves; and our author couples his frequent not over-complimentary allusions to our own silver situation with the prediction: "Before the six months [after May 1, the time set for the reconvening of the Conference] are up, affairs in America will, no doubt, have taken such a shape that the Americans themselves will have to set seriously to work to solve the difficulty into which their own light-headed legislation has plunged them." Only too sadly has his prediction been fulfilled! An appendix contains a translation of a recent essay on 'Silver and Gold' by the French expert, M. A. de Foville, in which a mass of statistics are collected to prove that it would be suicidal for France to reintroduce free coinage of silver. In fact, in France, as in Germany, there is not the least likelihood of any triumph for "silver."

—The subject of glacial physics in its relations both to the phenomena of the Great Ice Age and to those of glaciers generally is attracting unusual attention among geologists at the present time, and bids fair to become with that class of investigators a bone of contention only less violent than was the Darwinian theory of descent among biologists some thirty years ago. It cannot be said that the two subjects are in any way of equal significance, but they agree in so far as they both represent topics which have been more generally discussed and universally treated than any other in their respective sciences. English and American geological literature is especially fertile in "glacial" contributions, and it has even been remarked by some of the opponents of the United States Geological Survey that its name might appropriately be changed to the United States Glacial Survey. It is somewhat surprising, in view of the attention thus paid to the subject by English-speaking geologists, that no comprehensive work covering the field of glaciology should yet have appeared in the English language, and it is probably equally true of American geologists as it is (as has been recently asserted by a past-president of the London Geological Society) of English geologists, that a large number of them are not even acquainted with the one critical and authoritative work that has been published—Heim's 'Gletscherkunde.' Like the most important general work on geology that has appeared in the last quarter of a century, Suess's 'Antlitz der Erde,' this one still awaits a translator and a publisher.

—We called attention in a recent issue of the *Nation* to a paper by Prof. Bonney in the *Geographical Journal* for June, 1893, entitled, "Do Glaciers Excavate?" in which it is contended, in opposition to the views held by the extreme glacialists, such as Ramsay, Tyndall, and Newberry, and even to those held by the average geologist, that the excavating power of the land ice-sheets, whether large or small, is all but *nil*. They erode, abrade, and polish, and to that limited extent modify the relief of

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the land-surface; but they are incapable of removing large obstacles placed or left in their paths, and are entirely powerless as scooping engines. This view is enunciated after a personal study of the principal glacial valleys of the Alps, and it is strongly corroborated by the researches of Douglas Freshfield in the Caucasus and of Mr. W. M. Conway in the high Himalaya. If the data brought forward by these investigators be fully sustained, they virtually deal a death blow to the theory which attributes to glacial scour the excavation of large rock (lake) basins and the fashioning of rock-bound fjords—a theory, indeed, which has always appeared unreasonable to a large body of geologists. Sir Henry Howorth, the well-known writer on the mammoth and the flood, boldly announces in a recent publication that the Great Ice Age, however it may have been represented in the region further to the South, was entirely unknown in the far North—the Arctic regions generally—where the climate has been steadily growing colder. His work, 'The Glacial Nightmare and the Flood; a Second Appeal to Common Sense from the Extravagance of Some Recent Geology,' will certainly attract the attention of geologists, and seems likely to prove a firebrand in the counsels of the glacialists.

—A decidedly new departure in missionary reports is made in a readable pamphlet compiled by the Rev. J. H. De Forest of Sendai, Japan. One hundred and fourteen pages are devoted to the literary, self-supporting, independent, and coöperative work, and six pages only, of names and notes, to "The American Board's Mission." It is rather startling to find a missionary urging that the natives be left to do the main work of preaching, that the foreigner drop the money-reins and financial whip, and "pass over in bulk the money granted through joint consultation about the needs of the field." Yet this is what Mr. De Forest and most, or at least the best, of the American Board's missionaries are ready to do. He argues that they who insist that "so long as we furnish the money we shall control the work," lose in moral influence and power more than they gain. As matter of fact, the step away from the traditional method was taken ten years ago, when, on the formation of the Doshisha University, the money raised in the United States was passed over to the Japanese in bulk. This practice is still continued. A committee of three in consultation represents the American Board, without reserving the right of voting. The pamphlet is entitled 'Brief Survey of Christian Work in Japan, 1892, with special reference to the Kumi-ai Churches.' These fifty-two Kumi-ai (associated) churches are absolutely independent of all foreign control. The natives conduct the services wholly and a foreigner's preaching is the rare exception. During the year ending March 31, 1893, more conversions and baptisms were reported in these native independent churches than in all the other Protestant churches or organizations, though over thirty foreign societies now have representatives in Japan. The list of periodicals and books written by natives and widely circulated, in addition to numerous translations, shows, by the seriousness of the themes and the ability of the writers, how profoundly Christianity is leavening the nation, even while the statistics of extension show curtailment over those of previous years. The notes on Shinto, Buddhism, and Confucianism, philosophy, etc., are very valuable and set in attractive literary form. Some of the statistics summarized are: Roman Catholics, 44,812, in 244 congregations; Greek Catholics, 20,235, in 219 congregations; Protestants, 35,534, in 365 local churches. Baptisms for 1892 numbered 5,354; 952; and 3,731, in the three folds. Whether division or union be more illustrated by Protestants, let the figures decide: The 31 Protestant organizations are reduced to 12 alliances for work. Five of these alliances comprise 33,390 Christians, leaving only 1,644 to be apportioned among the remaining seven bodies, which represent twenty-four names. During this present summer over four hundred students met in a summer school on the modified Chautauqua plan. Two of the leading men, J. T. Yokoi (son of the Yokoi who was assassinated in 1868 for advocating toleration of Christianity), and Ebina, are on their way to attend the Congress of Religions at Chicago.

## HOUSEKEEPING IN EUROPE.

*A House-Hunter in Europe.* By William Henry Bishop. New York: Harper & Bros. 1893. Pp. 370.

Mr. Bishop has given us a very agreeable book, and one which will commend itself as useful to the large class interested in knowing the conditions of housekeeping abroad—the sort of houses that may be had, their rent and the cost of living in them. A family of two, Mr. Bishop and his wife, "wanted to gratify to the full" the American "taste for antiquity and romantic tradition," as well as to "test personally the cheapness of foreign living, of which we hear so much." There were, at the outset, no children to bring up, no purposes of special study, no social aims to complicate the problem. They simply wanted to enjoy a couple of years in Europe, just as hundreds, perhaps thousands, of young households in America are always thinking of doing, and they continued their experiment for five years, instead of two, actually living in France and Italy, and exploring tentatively Spain, Algiers, and England. They do not seem to have felt drawn towards either Switzerland or Germany, but in the countries named they examined the capabilities of many places. In France, for instance, they kept house in Paris, in Villefranche, and in Nice, but they looked at habitations in Dinan, Versailles, Écouen, Blois, Orleans, Pau, Nevers, Avignon, and a dozen other towns charming in as many different ways, but all, at the time, for some reason or other, appearing desirable. There was, as we see, a certain width and, at the same time, a certain restriction of choice. A flavor of antiquity or of rusticity was what they wanted in their neighborhood, and a bit of garden for their own; as to the sort of house they were not unreasonably exacting, but the price of it must be moderate, and it should be unfurnished.

How many there are who would like to do the same thing, and who will be grateful to Mr. Bishop for saving them so much trouble in a wished-for future! Others would have been glad had so capable an explorer carried his researches yet further. Why did he not go to Senlis, for example, or Grenoble, or Montpellier, and why did he resist the inclination to stop off at Chartres? We wish, too, he had set at naught the foolish people who kept him from going to Palermo. The search would have been worth something to the intelligent house-hunter, even had the upshot been that Mr. Bishop found nothing in Sicily suited to his wants. The ignorance and prejudice of some of his friends had well-nigh kept him away from the Riviera, where, at last, he hit upon what he was looking for. We feel sure that Sicily contains a similar paradise; only, before engaging in a hunt for it, we should have been glad of the experience of so clever an explorer as our author. We all have been captivated by a sympathetic charm in certain towns, and we all have dreamed of the possibility of spending some years of our life in them, away from the trammels and burdens that elsewhere weigh us down. What food for hope, had Mr. Bishop only told us that in one such place there was awaiting us a tenantless house *entre cour et jardin!* As it is, he seems to have increased our chances of finding such a refuge by our own exertions. The writer of these lines has noted more than one page in the book as showing how the author was "warm," and passed without seeing it very near to the object of his search. The Villa des Amandiers was not by any means the only house on the Riviera that might have met Mr. Bishop's requirements of those days; but, as his choice was a matter of taste as well as of opportunity, we should not venture to say that any of the others had that inner fitness for his wants possessed by the house at Villefranche.

For people who have not lived abroad the main interest of this book will be in the light it throws on questions such as those of rent and cost of living. The question of convenience in house accommodation is, at first, not so prominent. Most are sure that, somewhere, the quaint old houses they read of in books are waiting to receive them. Experience may make them impatient of "rookeries"; it will, in any case, put the question of suitableness to your needs in its proper place. But, first and last, you will never cease to be interested as to prices; and, in this respect, Mr. Bishop's book is of great value. He says at the outset that "the promise [of cheap living] was justified, and notable economies were really possible," though we must qualify his belief that he succeeded in doing things so cheaply that it would be difficult to do them for less. We have seen Americans established in Europe, ladies and gentlemen, too, for whom Mr. Bishop's allowance would have meant luxury; nor did they live in squalor. It is only that our author's standard is that of a man who can afford to push his search for a home across Spain, France, and Italy, and even into Algeria. Had he been unable to do so much, he would have contented himself in more modest ways. Without at all knowing how much Mr. Bishop had to spend, we should say, as the result of our own experience, that such housekeeping and mode of life as he describes was adapted for families of two with an income of $2,000 a year—more or less. Exceptionally good management may accomplish it for less; a loose-handed system might require much more.

Rents are certainly cheap in Europe. The houses looked at varied in price between 250 and 2,500 francs a year, some of them being much larger than was needed. The amounts paid were about 900 francs in Paris, less than 400 in Verona, and 600 at Villefranche. The Verona experience was not quite a satisfactory one. The little house proved hot in summer and cold in winter, and was far from the centre of the town; those, however, who know the garden in which it stands and the view which it commands, will not wonder at the choice. Add to this that Verona was the place where, with an excellent market, prices were an exception to what our author calls the "usual price" for provisions. "There seems to be some law by which beef is about a shilling a pound, and eggs from a shilling to a shilling and a half a dozen everywhere." At Verona, however,

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"eggs were but fifteen sous (cents) a dozen, milk was four sous a litre, and the best *filet* of beef three francs a kilo—two and one-fifth pounds—as against five francs in France." It might have been added that such a difference is that of Italy everywhere as against France, and that it is even more marked in the case of vegetables and fruits. The teeming abundance of Italy in these products makes them of an almost phenomenal cheapness.

Other things to be noted by the house-hunter are: (1) That houses are more plentiful, more commodious, and often no dearer in places where there is active demand for them, such as Pau or Nice, than in unfrequented cities where competition does not regulate the price. This rule applies to France. In Italy, Florence seemed dearer in respect of rents than Nice, and Rome expensive like Paris. (2) That it is easier to find furnished than unfurnished houses, at least in the less visited towns; and (3) that a cheap rent is apt to be in a quarter where other people live cheaply and are undesirable neighbors. These last two observations are, however, often contradicted by individual experience; in semi-rural places the cheapest rent is often found combined with the best situation—that, by the way, is our remark and not Mr. Bishop's.

In the course of his explorations, the author had his eyes open to many things besides the conditions of housekeeping, and he has thrown in plenty of pleasant pages upon society in Paris, upon Algeria, and various towns in Spain, upon Spanish literary men, and, in general, upon the ouside aspects of all sorts of places. We have noted many good sayings; and the judgments expressed are, as a rule, those of a man who knows the world and is superior to small prejudices. For instance, "There is a word to be said as to the rigid severity with which religious dissent was repressed in Spain, which—now that it all can't be helped—may reconcile the amateurs of art to it. The churches were not racked to pieces by religious wars, as in all the rest of Europe, and have kept their treasures mainly unimpaired." On the other hand, there are those who will think that he need not have taken the Félibres as seriously as they take themselves, and, on the principle of giving "the devil his due," we should say that he has not stated as strongly as he might have done the case for Monte Carlo. It is not pleasant to seem to defend so pestilent an institution, but since people can stake there only what they actually happen to have in their pockets, and cannot engage their other belongings—as they could at a club—cases where the tables bring more than a temporary inconvenience to players are extremely rare. For this and for other reasons, we believe that most of the stories of suicides are apocryphal.

The book is so agreeably written, and Mr. Bishop so well knows what he is talking about, that it would be an impertinence to praise his general correctness in details. He will pardon us, then, if we call attention to a very few slips of the pen, as, for instance, where (p. 353) he spells Emanuele with two *m's*, or where (p. 37) he writes "*arts d'agreement*"; similarly (p. 343), he speaks of St. Zeno and St. Anastasia as being examples of "Byzantine-Gothic," whatever that may be, and (p. 102) puts Verdi instead of Gounod as author of the music of "Mireille" and original of a bust in the house of Mistral. Again, the island of Corsica (p. 279), though it may be only in mirage, *is* frequently seen, not only at Nice, but for a great distance along the Riviera. To see it distinctly at evening portends rain. After all this, it is pleasant to call attention to the fact that the book is furnished with a good index.

"Taking the pros and cons generally, for living abroad, S——, who was no strong enthusiast for the scheme at first, was apt to argue as follows: Vastly cheaper rent; provisions and servants' wages not any dearer (probably, on the whole, less), a brighter, freer life in an agreeable climate (this not till after we had found the agreeable climate), and improving picturesque surroundings.

"'Put in,' she adds, 'that if rich people, with everything to make life enjoyable at home, like so much to come over, it ought to be all the more attractive to those in moderate circumstances.—No, don't put that in. It might bring over some with wholly different views from ours, who would get into all sorts of difficulties; they wouldn't want to give up the friends, local interests and duties to which they are attached; they might not like it *at all*.'

"So I don't put that in. Please consider it not put in."

## W. G. WARD AND THE CATHOLIC REVIVAL.

*William George Ward and the Catholic Revival.* By Wilfrid Ward, author of 'William George Ward and the Oxford Movement.' Macmillan & Co. 1893.

An interest so fascinating attaches to the Oxford Movement, and Mr. Wilfrid Ward's book about his father as related to that movement was such a valuable contribution to the literature of the subject, that the reader coming to this second part, in which the scene is wholly changed, will hardly expect to find himself so well pleased and entertained as in the former part. But he will be agreeably disappointed. If the scene is changed, some of the leading actors are the same, and the gain in novelty more than makes up for the loss of some familiar things. Moreover, here, as in the former book, the personality of William George Ward is always dominant. He continues to be peculiar and eccentric, and the exhibition of his intellectual powers is much more impressive as he attains "the years that bring the philosophic mind." To the intelligent Protestant the book should be a lesson of modesty and forbearance, for here, as in the case of Newman, we have one of the brightest intellects of the time entirely devoted to the Roman Catholic Church, and, to a degree beyond Newman, to the infallibility of the Pope. When, in the same book, we have such men as Mill and Martineau and Huxley allowing the commanding force of Ward's mind and the rigor of his logical procedure, and yet differing from him immeasurably in their conclusions, it is evident that the race is not always to the intellectually swift nor the battle to the logically strong.

Ward was born in 1812; he joined Newman's party in 1838, and straightway set about accelerating Newman's tardy pace towards Rome, instigating him to the publication of 'Tract 90,' and supporting it with two tracts of his own, and finally, in 1844, publishing his 'Ideal of a Christian Church,' in which he maintained that an Anglican could hold all the Roman doctrines in good faith, and for which he was deprived of his Oxford degrees in February, 1845, the Rev. A. P. Stanley furnishing the eloquent conclusion of his speech in Convocation. He made his submission to the Roman Church in the following September, a month earlier than Newman, whom his zeal continually outran. At this point Mr. Wilfrid Ward again takes up the parable. His book is written in an admirable spirit. He is an ardent Romanist, but he treats all sorts of heretics and schismatics with a consideration from which many Protestant theologians and biographers might learn something to the advantage of their own criticism and polemics. Indeed, though Ward and Newman both insisted that the Church still had the right to persecute, and refrained from persecution only on grounds of expediency, it is impossible to read such a book as this without feeling that an immense change has come over the religious mind of Christendom; that an immense gain has been made for toleration when men of such widely different tendencies and opinions can cherish for each other such sympathy and admiration as are here displayed. These seem the real things, and the formal ecclesiastical opinions very unreal in comparison.

Ward did not share the sanguine expectations of those converts who looked for an Anglican stampede into the Roman Church. That amusing mediævalist, Pugin, who was shocked at finding Ward's windows at Oxford without mullions, built him a house near St. Edmund's Roman Catholic College, which presumably had mullions in abundance. Ward was one of those Tractarians who disappointed Newman by marrying; but though he multiplied children after the manner of the poorer clergy, his life was almost conventual. His relation to his children was one sign among many of his lack of sweet humanity. He generally heard, he said, when they were born; after that he avoided them until they were old enough to be his intellectual companions. In general his sense of blood-relationship was a sense of difference and repulsion. He got along with relatives best by arranging not to be on speaking terms with them. Once, having so arranged with his brother Henry, they met at the theatre, and, forgetting the arrangement, had a happy time together, but the next morning they exchanged apologies and resumed their uncordial basis. The death of an uncle in 1849 changed Ward's condition from one of poverty to that of a large landed proprietor. What Tennyson called his "grotesque truthfulness" found here an interesting illustration. When his uncle was sick, Ward was troubled in conscience because he was impatient for his uncle's death. He consulted a priest about his feelings, and was told that it was quite enough that he should feel a certain regret at his uncle's death, though he might be pleased to inherit his property. Ward protested: "I feel no regret whatever at the prospect." "Well," said the priest, "you must have a certain wish, quite apart from other consequences, that he might be spared." "Not the slightest," was the rejoinder; "I never cared for him." "Your poor uncle has been suffering," urged the priest; "your spirits fall a little when you hear that he is worse." "On the contrary, they rise," said Ward; but he allowed that he would not do anything to hasten his uncle's death. He was equally honest when he went to get his life insured. Asked if his general health was good, he answered, "It is deplorably bad." Asked if he slept well, he said, "I have never had a good night in my life." By this candor he secured at thirty-eight the average terms of a man between sixty and seventy, and he reached the latter year.

Mr. Wilfrid Ward divides his father's Roman Catholic career into three parts—the first that of his professorship at St. Edmund's, from 1851 to 1859, during which years he was excogitating the doctrine of his 'Nature and Grace'; the second part, from 1860 to 1870, that of his defence (as editor of the *Dublin Review*) of papal infallibility against Döllinger and others; the third, 1870-1882, that of his polemics against the experience philosophy of

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Mill and Bain. The first of these three periods was the happiest of his life. But he was not cordially received at St. Edmund's, to the disadvantage of being a convert adding that of being a married layman. It seemed a paradox that he should be a teacher of young priests. Yet no clerical ideal of the priestly function was more exigent than his. Assured that there was nothing for him to do, he soon made himself felt and needed. He found the Old Catholics of England in a state of "miserable intellectual degradation," not even able to express themselves correctly in the English language. Vaughan, the successor of Manning, was at first suspicious of him, but became one of his strong admirers before long. Living in a world of abstractions, Ward's knowledge of the material and practical side of life was next to nothing. There is a capital instance in his first meeting with Vaughan. Vaughan, it seems, knew a beech tree when he saw it. "Wonderful man!" exclaimed Ward. "You know all the *minutiæ* of botany." A correspondence with Mill was one of the most interesting incidents of the St. Edmund's period. It took its rise in Ward's review of Mill's 'Political Economy.' Each had a warm appreciation of the other's intellectual power and sincerity. Their mutual relations became much more important in the third period of Ward's intellectual activity, when he put forth all his strength against Mill's doctrine of the experiential basis of all intellectual and moral ideas. It was Mill's own feeling that his doctrine had never met with keener opposition. Some falling away from Mill was evident, and the break would doubtless have been much worse if Spencer had not brought up his reserves of inherited tendency. It is good to find Mill and Ward heartily associated against Gov. Eyre, and to find Ward applauding Mill's famous declaration, in his 'Examination of Sir William Hamilton,' that he would "call no being good who was not what he meant when he applied that epithet to his fellow-creatures; and that, if such a being could send him to hell for not so calling him, then to hell he would go."

Already in the St. Edmund's period Ward's eagerness for the exercise of papal authority was greatly in excess of Newman's. Ward would have had a papal bull with his *Times* for breakfast every morning, and he hailed the decree of Immaculate Conception five years in advance with glee, while Newman was indifferent and quizzical. In the interval between his resignation at St. Edmund's and his assumption of the *Dublin Review*, Ward's relations with several of his old Oxford friends, Catholics and Anglicans, were resumed. The pages given to Faber are some of the most interesting in the book. Ward did not like Faber's preaching, and he dearly loved the theatre. Faber's London chapel was turned into a theatre, and Ward, going there to a play, records two thoughts that came to him between the acts: "The first was, Last time I was in this building I heard Faber preach. The second was, How much more I am enjoying myself to-night than the last time I was here." Faber's mind was so much sicklied over with the pale cast of his ecclesiastical notions that it is most refreshing to find him meeting Ward's question, "Shall I go into retreat?" with, "A retreat! It would send you to hell. Go to the play as often as you can, but don't dream of a retreat." There is other evidence that the Oxford set carried themselves somewhat more naturally and humanly after their submission to Rome than when they were on the way to her embrace. So much is said of the elephantine bulk and weight of Ward that we crave to know how much he actually weighed. We are not informed, but infer something prodigious from the fact that, riding for his health, he arranged to have six horses an hour, using up one every ten minutes. But this was partly because he sat his horse as if he were himself a bag of sand.

The second period of Ward's career was less happy than the first because he was the intellectual leader of that "insolent faction," as Newman called it, which was clamorous for a formal declaration of the Pope's infallibility, and thus he was brought into painful conflict with Newman, for whom he had a very real reverence and affection. Mr. Wilfrid Ward's account of the controversy is meant to be extremely fair, and is so with the possible exception of the treatment of Döllinger—an exception to be expected from the radical difference of Döllinger's position from that of Ward, with which the son is in perfect sympathy. He is very careful to distinguish Newman's position from that of Döllinger and the extreme French Liberals, and Ward's from that of the extreme French Ultramontanes, who practically identified the Pope with the Holy Ghost. Their view was not incorporated in the Vatican Definition, nor was Ward's so completely as he could wish, and thus he had an opportunity to subject his personal opinion to the dictum of the Church, and did so with a better grace than his habitual dogmatism would lead us to expect. The matter as finally settled is not so plain that a wayfaring man, though a fool, may not err therein:

"While the decree condemned the Gallican view that the consent of the Church is necessary to the validity of a definition, the Fathers enforced the share of the Church as represented by bishops, synods, and scientific theologians *in its framing*, and, *by consequence*, the practical necessity of their aid in its interpretation, and in determining what was infallibly and irreformably decreed and what was not."

The net result will probably be an infallibility which confines itself pretty closely to mere truism and platitude, or, as in the last pronouncement of the Pope upon American affairs, is so ambiguous as to leave both parties disputing the possession of the field. Ward was nothing if not logical, and his interest in the matter proceeded more from his passionate eagerness for a logical conclusion than from any other source.

The general reader will find no part of this biography more interesting than the chapter on the Metaphysical Society, about which much has been written, but nothing more instructive than these pages, which are all the better for being rich in quoted passages from Hutton, Huxley, Martineau, and others, who have given some account of the most remarkable symposium of modern times. Evidently Ward was one of the most valued members; by none valued more than by those opposed to him most heartily. Huxley was one of these—at the most opposite extreme, but more like Ward than any one else in his skill in logical fence and his quickness to detect the weakness of an opponent's argument. It was Greek meeting Greek when he and Ward crossed swords. One of their encounters at the outset was characteristic. Some one suggested that there should be no element of moral reprobation in the discussions. Whereupon Ward: "While acquiescing in this condition as a general rule, I think it cannot be expected that Christian thinkers shall give no sign of the horror with which they would view the spread of such extreme opinions as those advocated by Mr. Huxley." Then Huxley: "As Dr. Ward has spoken, I must in fairness say that it will be very difficult for me to conceal my feeling as to the intellectual degradation which would come of the general acceptance of such views as Dr. Ward holds." These cloud-bursts cleared the atmosphere, and it was generally perceived that this sort of thing would never do. With his customary frankness, Ward told Huxley in private that he considered him guilty of absolutely unpardonable error. "My dear Dr. Ward," answered Huxley, "if you don't mind, I don't." Huxley complains that the point of the anecdote has been found in his retort, and not in the evidence it affords of Ward's character—"a philosophical and theological Don Quixote, if it were not that our associations with the name of the Knight of La Mancha are mainly derived from his adventures, and not from the noble directness and simplicity of mind which led to those misfortunes."

In the closing chapter there is much entertaining matter concerning Ward's personal traits, habits of reading, and so on. Tennyson was his neighbor and friend, and, after his death, wrote a sonnet on him containing one of his most clumsy lines—"Most generous of all Ultramontanes, Ward." In his love and knowledge of trees, flowers, and birds he was at Ward's antipodes. Ward could not distinguish one tree or flower from another, and hated birds because they made a noise; the nightingales especially keeping him awake. The lesson that came home to him in his last illness—"to make more allowance for the inevitable differences between one mind and another"—is the great moral lesson of his life. His own mind was a singularly interesting one in its passionate hankering for authoritative guidance on the one hand, and its eagerness for free speculation on the other. To have had all the great questions which he discussed with such unsparing logic and such violent rhetoric suddenly settled by a papal edict, would have been for him a dreadful blow. Yet it is difficult to understand why their authoritative solution is not as desirable as that of any question on which the Popes have, so far, infallibly pronounced.

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*Books in Manuscript:* A Short Introduction to their Study and Use. With a chapter on Records. By Falconer Madan, M.A. London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners.

THIS newest volume in the series of "Books About Books" has been fortunately intrusted to Mr. Madan, Lecturer in Mediæval Palæography in the University of Oxford. He has succeeded in meeting the primary needs of the amateur and the student, while at the same time furnishing a lucid survey of the whole field for the general reader, in a style not more scholarly than simple and entertaining. A singular amount of information, brought down to date, is packed away in less than 200 pages of open characters. In the chapter on materials for writing and the form of books, Mr. Madan tells of the recent discovery of a face and back, or a right and wrong side, to papyrus; of the disuse of this material in Egypt after the tenth and in Europe after the eleventh century; of the microscopic proof within a few years that the yellowish paper found especially in Greek MSS. till the fifteenth century was of linen rag like the rest, and not cotton, as the books have heretofore taught. He traces the etymology of paper, parchment, and vellum, assigns the first manufacture of paper outside of China to the approximate date 750 A. D., and notes that water-marks are a

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purely Western invention, by the aid of which we may determine the forms of books as folio, quarto, etc. The next section is on the history of writing and (in cursory fashion) of the alphabet, with its summing up:

"We see, then, that readers of the present day [outside of Germany, which, "both in writing and painting, has always stood apart, and lags behind the other nations of western Europe in its development"] owe their eyesight and their comfort to (1) the revival of pure forms of an old Roman kind by Charles the Great; (2) the seemingly accidental fact that the later Carolingian writing of the twelfth century was imitated by the Italian scribes of the fifteenth; (3) the happy natural selection by which printers chose this revived kind of letter. Had any one of these links failed, our type would have failed to attain its undoubted excellence."

In the section on scribes and their work, Mr. Madan finds the evidence in favor of wholesale dictation very scanty, and concludes that individual copying was almost the universal practice. He then deals with illuminations and the extraordinary achievements and influence of the Irish school. As landmarks we may cite the statements that a scene within a letter is not met with before the eleventh century, and a consistent true perspective not before the fifteenth. Further:

"A theory has recently been started (but as its author has not fully worked it out, a reference only is here permissible) that the English, Irish, and French writers and illuminators of this mediæval period used different standards of measurement, so that their work can be tested mechanically by observing to what scale the sizes of written page or painting belong, and that the English scribes used Roman standards, the Irish Greek, and the French their own."

The blunders of scribes are next taken up, with an examination of the sources of error in transcription and the psychological rules of correction. Here we read that, "instead of the corruptions and variations increasing in number in proportion to the distance of MSS. from the author's time," they actually diminish as scribes grow more intelligent, or through the "mixture" of MSS., which results in eliminating the personal equation. The MSS. of Virgil and the Four Gospels are particularly examined, and the number of the former extant (some two to three hundred), sufficiently striking in itself, becomes doubly so when it appears that that of the Gospels alone surpasses it—of course very greatly surpasses it. The succeeding chapter is on famous libraries, beginning with the British Museum, which claims to have "the largest collection of the literature of every foreign country which exists outside that country." Here we must not overlook a passage which throws a flood of light on the recent discussion in these columns concerning books arranged with their backs to the wall:

"In general, the volumes were disposed much as now—that is to say, upright, and in large cases affixed to a wall, often with doors. The larger volumes at least were in many cases chained, so that they could only be used within about six feet of their proper place; and since the chain was always riveted on the fore-edge of one of the sides of a book, the back of the volume had to be thrust first into the shelf, leaving the front edge of the leaves exposed to view. Many old volumes bear a mark in ink on this front edge, and when this is the case, we may be sure that it was once chained in a library; and usually a little further investigation will disclose the mark of a rivet on one of the sides."

We need not specify the famous manuscripts described after the famous libraries, nor the literary forgeries enumerated. These chapters are typically comprehensive and among the most readable in the book. Necessarily dryer and more special are those on the treatment and the cataloguing of MSS. and on public and private records. An appendix gives a list of public libraries containing more than 4,000 MSS. (and it is to be remarked that these acquisitions are by no means stationary: "Libraries which possessed 3,500 MSS. in 1882 may be estimated to contain 4,000 now"), together with a list of printed catalogues of MSS. in European languages in the greater English libraries.

The eight full-page plates have been very carefully chosen and are very minutely analyzed in a table. One misses, in the chapter on writing, any facsimiles in the text, where they ought to be rather copious in order to make an intricate subject intelligible; but Mr. Madan has purposely yielded the floor, in this particular, to Mr. Edward Maunde Thompson of the British Museum, who has just issued his 'Handbook of Greek and Latin Palæography.'

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*Current Americanisms.* By T. Baron Russell. London: Saxon & Co. 1893.

Of expressions peculiar to the United States, some which once obtained have become obsolete; of others the vogue is circumscribed, locally; and, again, of others, the occurrence is frequent in everyday conversation, but is comparatively infrequent in print. Respecting all such, how can we look for exact information except to one of ourselves? To any one else, obviously, the treatment of Americanisms in a manner at all trustworthy is little short of impossible. And even an American, unless at least conversancy with English literature of the two last centuries and also proficiency in the English dialects are predicable of him, is not equipped, otherwise than partially, to discourse on the subject anything like satisfactorily. That no American who has hitherto essayed to handle it in detail has given token that he possessed in due measure the qualifications just noted could, if it were necessary, be demonstrated copiously. Among scores of words and phrases, unquestionably neither indigenous nor in any way distinguishing us, in using which we are bid to believe that, on some ground or other, we Americanize, Mr. Bartlett, for instance, includes *attitudinize*, *counter-jumper*, *coverlid*, *educational*, *excursionist*, *immigrant*, *immigration*, an *independent* fortune, *once and again*, *over and above*, *prayerful*, *right* hard, *socialistic*, *summarize*, *sundown*, *vegetarianism*, *wastage*, together with *aggravate*, 'vex,' a *bright* lad, *elect* to go, *hard up*, 'short of funds,' *immediately*, 'as soon as,' *let things slide*, *pull up*, 'stop,' *not to be sneezed at*, *staging*, 'scaffolding,' *stop* at an inn, 'stay,' etc., and *upset* price. To exhibit one sample more of Mr. Bartlett's headlong criticism, there is his significantly illustrative assertion that "No Englishman would say 'the boat *has* gone,' '*has* come.'"

Nor, to pass to Professor Schele de Vere, are his errors less numerous or less flagrant than those of Mr. Bartlett, from whom not a few of them seem to be credulously adopted. Whole hosts of his comments are typified in his remark that *at once* "is used in the United States, North and South, instead of the English *immediately*"; and in his considering *back* for *ago* as American. Of Old England, linguistically, he knows, indeed, save at second hand, but little more than he knows, as to its people, of New England, where, he tells us, "perfect social equality has prevailed from the oldest times."

Mr. Farmer's pretentious and misleading compilation we reported on soon after its appearance. In the main, it commands but slight confidence; and of the work now under notice, though its scheme is by no means equally comprehensive, we are compelled to speak in terms still more unfavorable. Personally, as is manifest, a stranger to the United States, its author announces discoveries about matters of language here which would certainly chance to nobody but one circumstanced like himself. For example, he has found out that "'male-sheep,' 'male-hogs,' 'gentlemen-turkeys,' and 'gentlemen-game-chickens' belong to the natural history of refined Boston only." With something of the speech of Great Britain still to acquire, he characterizes as "negroisms," or "negro, originally," the verbs *conflagrate* and *consociate*, with *robustious* and *ruination*, though the second of these words dates from the sixteenth century, and the first and fourth from the seventeenth century, and though *robustious* was sanctioned by the Chronicler Hall, Shakespeare, Drayton, the water-poet Taylor, Milton, Thomas Fuller, Dryden, and Swift. Being, also, still to master sundry items among the initial mysteries of etymological science, he stigmatizes *approbate*, *consternate*, and *infract*, *betterment* and *obtusity*, not one of which, as he should know, had its birth in America, as "false derivatives"; the verbs in the list being, in his view, from *approbation*, etc., by what is now called back-formation. *Hypothecate* was long ago employed by Blackstone, Sir William Jones, Burke, and H. T. Colebrooke; and yet he produces it as an Americanism, and marks it as "German." His article on *authoress* runs: "Pickering regards this word (and any patriotic Briton must wish to agree with him) as an Americanism. Perhaps *manageress*, *tailoress*, and similar abominations are so, likewise—a consolation devoutly to be wished"; as if Mr. Pickering, who wrote in 1816, were an authority for "current Americanisms"; as if *manageress* and *tailoress*, with which rank *mayoress*, *prioress*, and *tutoress*, could be rationally objected to; and, especially, as if *authoress*, or its equivalent, had not been perfectly classical for upwards of three hundred years. Recourse to dictionaries of recent date does not appear to have occurred to Mr. T. Baron Russell as a source of assistance. To no person, however, of a moderate amount of reading, and of serviceable memory, would such recourse be required, in order to preclude the gross ignorance which is betrayed in seeing Americanisms in *abolitionist*, *addressee*, to *advise with*, to *affection*, *alienage*, *allottee*, the *alone* God, to *ambition*, *appetizer*, to *argufy*, *available*, and so on through the alphabet.

To dwell further on a book that teems with trumpery is needless. Besides its shortcomings glanced at above, it fails, for the most part, to discriminate between worn-out expressions and such as are now in use, as also between those which are common to us generally and those which are sectional, while it largely mistakes, as belonging to our popular speech, others which were simply creations for the nonce and have never obtained a foothold. Since we have, at last, a Dialect Society, there is reason to hope that we may look for a thorough and scholarly investigation of Americanisms, and, in course, for a dictionary of them deserving of reliance.

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*Princeton Sketches:* The Story of Nassau Hall. By George R. Wallace, Class of '91. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893. 8vo, illustrated. Pp. 200.

Nassau Hall once meant Princeton. The

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one building was the material college. Under its roof the students lodged, studied, took their meals, worshipped, recited, and declaimed. It sheltered their literary societies as well. It still may be taken as the type of the institution. Solid, persistent, well founded, it is the centre about which a whole brood of halls cluster. Its old cupola has become almost a spire, leading further aloft with more grace if not with greater breadth; and as its long brick "entries" (typifying, perhaps, the hard but straightforward way to a degree) have been cut up by partitions into corridors that begin at a spiral stairway and run against a dead wall, so the old courses of arts and letters, approved of gods and revered by men, have been chopped up into electives that begin and end not dissimilarly.

A new Princeton has grown about the old, but the old nucleus is the core and the heart. It is not too much to say that the beautiful campus and the rugged background in some respects reflect themselves in the character of her graduates. Her older men have boasted that Princeton was a national college; her junior sons in somewhat different phrase repeat the claim. We believe it is true that the Princetonian is proud of his college, and that he often justifies the college in being proud of him. They hold, we think with truth, that it is a democratic institution, where in all college matters men stand on their own merits; and it is certainly a delightful feature that the class exclusiveness which marks another latitude is, barring a little discipline of Freshmen, not to be found there.

So far as this particular book is concerned, it is not unkindness to say that its most instructive feature is the illustrations. The village of palaces set forth is still inadequate to shelter the thousand scholars. This is the brick-and-mortar side of the extraordinary development of the last twenty-five years, the fruition of seed sown in President Maclean's later days. The text, so far as it goes, is fairly accurate, but the author in his next edition may care to change some statements. The literary societies after the conflagration of 1802 found their new rooms in the Library, now the offices, built in 1803, not in Nassau Hall again. There is no good reason to suppose that the cannon which is so essential a feature in the outdoor ceremonies of the College, played any part in the battle of Princeton. It was a siege piece, and as such could not have been used by either army in that engagement. It is much more probable that at some unimportant period a broken carriage determined its detention—for example, when the French marched north to return home. The dwelling in which Mercer died, in rear of the critical field of battle, should continue to be known as the Clarke house, in memory of those kindly and patriotic Friends who graced it through several generations, notwithstanding that its ownership is now changed. The enemy in that battle were not Hessians, but a brigade of British regulars under Mawhood. June, 1844, marks the date of the new Commencement; the resolution to make the change may have been in 1843. The writer, brought up in the atmosphere of modern sports, looks upon the play "with balls and sticks" objected to by the Faculty in 1787 as "the first appearance of base-ball at Princeton." That was a sheer guess, and a bad one. "Shinny" was thus aimed at, and it was not suppressed until sixty years afterwards, when the authorities planted the "back campus" with trees, beautifying the quadrangle and preventing the game. There is internal evidence that our author is an American Whig, who inadvertently betrays one of his Hall secrets. These are little matters, but the babes and sucklings in local history should have their milk pure.

Whether calling itself such will make Princeton a university, may be doubted. It called itself a boating college, and "the university boat-house" is among the illustrations. There should be an affirmative born of two negatives, but this may be the exception to that venerable rule. To discuss seriously the influence of enormous classes, of costly dormitories, of multiplied electives, of the weakness that strains after "'varsity" effects, would be placing too heavy a stress upon this slender span that would bridge the space between the graduate of to-day and the polished Jonathan Belcher.

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*An Elementary Treatise on Pure Geometry*, with numerous examples. By John Wellesley Russell, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

*An Elementary Treatise on Modern Pure Geometry.* By R. Lachlan, M.A. Macmillan. 1893.

*Geometry in the Grammar School:* An Essay. Together with illustrative class exercises, and an outline of the work for the last three years of the Grammar School. By Paul H. Hanus, Assistant Professor of the History and Art of Teaching, Harvard University. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1893.

THE two text-books cited above, one from Oxford, the other from Cambridge, are on a subject lately introduced into the university examination papers. Neither is of great merit. The Oxford book shows somewhat more mathematical and geometrical ability, and contains upwards of 1,500 examples, mostly of real interest. The elementary explanations of the Cambridge book are somewhat superior, and it deals with some interesting topics altogether omitted from the other treatise. It is, doubtless, the more convenient text-book for the teacher, though the less profitable for the earnest student. The great arbitrariness of the arrangement of both books is well shown by comparing them together in this respect. The theorems are pitchforked together upon no principle, and as for the examples, it is really curious to remark under what diverse heads one and the same proposition may be treated. The leading propositions of each book are mere illustrative examples for its rival.

The reason why analytical methods are more easily handled than the synthetical geometry is chiefly that the former arrange the whole subject in a perfectly definite and unmistakable manner. No wonder a pupil is puzzled to apply a theory consisting of some thirty fragments not connected by any intrinsic bonds. As long as this state of things exists, notwithstanding the infinitely greater elegance of the pure geometry, its great practical use will be to serve as a guide in the reformation of analysis. The older treatises upon modern geometry did not exhibit this loose articulation, for the reason that they dealt chiefly with projective properties, and introduced what little metrics they gave as corollaries to the projective theorems. This could no longer be thought of, yet it suggests the proper way of arranging the subject. No text-book of either synthetical or analytical geometry omits that grand proposition of Cayley, that every metrical fact is a projective fact about a certain fixed quadric, or in plane geometry about the section of this quadric by the plane; nevertheless, writers of text-books put them together as if they did not really believe this. If it be true, surely an eternal fitness requires that the projective geometry of rectilinear diagrams and conics should precede all metrical matter, and that the Euclidean geometry should be taught as a particular case of the non-Euclidean.

Prof. Hanus's want of acquaintance with geometry, beyond what everybody knows, is very apparent. He applies general principles of pedagogy to give a few maxims too vague to be of much positive value, and upon that basis proceeds to pronounce *ex cathedra* upon perhaps the most difficult problem of intellectual education—the question of what, when, and how to teach in the first instruction in geometry. The illustrative exercises exemplify some methods in teaching applicable to many subjects and widely used in our schools. The course laid out could not well be much worse than it is, and is calculated to impart to the scholar ideas of geometry as confused as those of Prof. Hanus himself.

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*William Kitchen Parker*, F.R.S., sometime Hunterian Professor of Anatomy and Physiology in the Royal College of Surgeons of England: A Biographical Sketch by his Son, T. Jeffery Parker. Macmillan & Co. 1893. 8vo, pp. 145.

RESEARCHES on the foraminifera and on the vertebrate skeleton have made a limited group of scholars familiar with Prof. Parker's name. A multitude of future students will owe him their gratitude and respect. His splendid series of monographs have prepared a welcome for the opportunity given by his son of knowing the man more intimately, of learning how it was he placed himself among the great men of science. The story is that of a dissatisfied farmer boy who became a druggist's clerk, a village physician, and ultimately a Fellow of the Royal Society. It is a record that might be cited in support of Dalton's conclusions "that no man can achieve a very high reputation without being gifted with very high abilities," and "that few who possess these very high abilities can fail in achieving eminence"; yet, from what we learn of his farmer ancestry, it is not an instance to support the theory of hereditary ability in general. Religious fervor, lasting from his fifteenth year till the end, and scientific enthusiasm, were most prominent characteristics of a truly amiable man. Our sympathy goes out to him in his struggles, his ill-health, his hours of depression or exaltation; and such particulars as how unsystematic he was or how talkative, detract nothing from our esteem. Some one, we are told, was reminded by the Professor's style of a dog going home, firm in his purpose and sure to get there, now on this side of the road, now on the other, now scratching at a rat-hole, and now dashing across the field for a friendly or hostile sniff at another dog. There is also a lively anecdote of a visitor who, at mention of a skull, was carried off to the study, and, unable to get in a dozen words, was overwhelmed by explanations, illustrations, and sketches for the entire evening, then accompanied to the door for a ten or fifteen-minute conclusion, and finally allowed to depart, while the Professor sank into a chair, ejaculating, "That's a most intelligent young man, but I thought he'd never go; I'm dead tired."

The author has done his work well, without overestimate of the great importance of his father's works. A letter from Sir William Bowman contains this summary of Prof. Parker's temperament: "He was a bright,

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happy, loving man, full of reverence, intensely feeling the pure pleasure of the contemplation and investigation of Nature, who greatly advanced knowledge because apparently he could not help doing it, the joy was so pervading."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Angell, G. T. Autobiographical Sketches and Personal Recollections. *American Humane Society.*
Besant, Walter. The Rebel Queen. Harpers. $1.50.
Bonner, John. A Child's History of France. Harpers. $2.
Boyle, Virginia F. The Other Side: An Historic Poem. Memphis, Tenn.: A. R. Taylor. $1.
Bradley, F. H. Appearance and Reality. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2.75.
Bunner, H. C. "Made in France": French Tales retold with a United States Twist. Keppler & Schwarzmann.
Burke, J. M. "Buffalo Bill": from Prairie to Palace. Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Cahun, Léon. La Tueuse. 1241. [Romans Historiques.] Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Campbell, W. W. The Dread Voyage: Poems. Toronto: William Briggs. $1.
Chase, F. H. The Old Syriac Element in the Text of Codex Bezae. Macmillan. $2.50.
Coppée, Francois. True Riches. Appletons.
First Three Republican National Conventions. Minneapolis: C. W. Johnson. $2.
Gardener, Helen H. Facts and Fictions of Life. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Gautier, Judith. Le Dragon Impérial. [Romans Historiques.] Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Grey, Maxwell. An Innocent Impostor. Appletons. $1.
*Horton, E. A. Noble Lives and Noble Deeds.* Boston: Unitarian Sunday-School Society.
Howe, Maud. Honor. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co.
Jacolliot, J. L. The Fróler Case. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
James, Henry. The Private Life, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.
Johnson's Gardener's Dictionary. Part II. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 40 cents.
Johnston, W. J. An Elementary Treatise on Analytical Geometry. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Leroy-Beaulieu, Anatole. Israël chez les Nations. 9th edition. Paris: Calmann Lévy.
Leverson, M. R. Thoughts on Institutions of the Higher Education. S. & D. A. Huebsch.
Mach, Prof. Ernst. The Science of Mechanics. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $2.50.
Maycock, W. P. Electric Lighting and Power Distribution. Part III. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Merrill, Prof. E. T. Catullus. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Roberts, J. W. Looking Within. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.
Rothwell, R. P. Universal Bimetallism. Scientific Publishing Co. 75 cents.
*Sanborn, Kate. A Truthful Woman in Southern California.* Appletons. 75 cents.
Savage, R. H. The Passing Show. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
The Open Secret. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 75 cents.
The Principles of Fitting for Apprentices and Students. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Thorpe, Prof. T. E. A Dictionary of Applied Chemistry. Vol. III. Longmans, Green & Co. $20.
Weld, Prof. L. G. The Theory of Determinants. Macmillan.


# HENRY HOLT & CO., New York,

*Have Published During the Past School Year:*

**Barker's Physics** (Advanced Course, American Science Series). By GEORGE F. BARKER, Professor in the University of Pennsylvania. x+902 pp., 8vo. Teachers' price $3.50; postage 28 cents additional.
A comprehensive text book for higher college classes, rigorous in method, and thoroughly modern in its treatment of the subject as distinctively the science of energy. The London *Chemical News* pronounces it "the best truly modern manual of physics in our language."

**Baldwin's Elements of Psychology.** By JAMES MARK BALDWIN, Professor in Princeton College. xvi+372 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price $1.50; postage 11 cents additional.
Presents the essentials of the science, including the latest results of experimental psychology, in a single compact volume. While based on the author's larger "Handbook of Psychology," whole sections have some times been rewritten and even whole chapters recast. The exposition has been simplified throughout and more illustrative facts and explanations added.

**Falckenberg's History of Modern Philosophy.** Translated by A. C. ARMSTRONG, Jr., Professor of Philosophy in Wesleyan University. xvi+655 pp. 8vo. Teachers' price $3.50; postage 25 cents additional.
A comprehensive view of the history of modern philosophy from Nicolas of Cusa to the present time. Full and appreciative in its treatment of British and of general nineteenth century philosophy.

**Beresford-Webb's German Historical Reader.** Edited with an introduction, connecting passages, and notes, by CHARLES R. BERESFORD-WEBB. 240 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price 90 cents; postage 8 cents additional.
Selections from German historians, mostly of a popular order, which, taken together, present a fair outline of the history of German and continental affairs down to the present century.

**Fischer's Practical Lessons in German.** By A. ALBIN FISCHER. Fourth edition. viii+156 pp. Teachers' price 75 cents; postage 7 cents additional.
This book, new to the list of its present publishers, has been found to be a successful modification of the natural method, insuring great thoroughness.

**Jagemann's Materials for German Prose Composition.** With notes and vocabulary. By H. C. G. VON JAGEMANN, Assistant Professor of German in Harvard University. vi+288 pp, 12mo. Teachers' price 90 cents; postage 8 cents additional.
Easy connected prose, chiefly narrative and historical. The notes consist chiefly of references to the author's "Elements of German Syntax," which is intended to accompany this book. The vocabulary is especially complete, and discriminates between synonyms.

**Riehl's Burg Neideck.** With introduction and notes by ARTHUR H. PALMER, Professor of the German Language and Literature in Yale University. x+66 pp. 12mo, boards. Teachers' price 30 cents; postage 3 cents additional.
One of Riehl's brightest and most pleasing historical genre-pictures, using the period of the Seven Years' War as a background.

**Daudet's Contes de Daudet.** With introduction and notes by A. GUYOT CAMERON, Assistant Professor of French in the Sheffield Scientific School, Yale University. xx+299 pp. 16mo. Teachers' price 80 cents; postage 7 cents additional.
Eighteen tales, including *La Belle Nivernaise*, representing the different types under which Daudet's short stories may be grouped. Dialectal and other difficulties are carefully explained in the notes. The introduction is unusually full and adequate.

**Daudet's La Belle Nivernaise.** With Notes by A. GUYOT CAMERON. 79 pp. 12mo, boards. Teachers' price 25 cents; postage 3 cents additional.
Taken bodily from the foregoing volume, with the same notes and references.

**Joynes's Minimum French Grammar and Reader.** By EDWARD S. JOYNES, Professor in South Carolina College. vi+269 pp. Teacher's price, 75 cents; postage 6 cents additional.
Combines in a single brief volume the essentials of grammar, with ample exercises, and graded selections for easy reading, with notes and vocabularies. The object is to reduce preliminary grammatical study to the minimum consistent with due method and completeness.

**Goodell's Greek Lessons.** Part I. The Greek in English. Part II. The Greek of Xenophon. By THOMAS D. GOODELL, Professor in Yale University. x+376 pp. 16mo. Teachers' price $1.25; postage 8 cents additional.
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